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УРАЛСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ

T A B L E

OF THE

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N. B. FOR REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c., of which Accounts are given in the Review,—see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

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ERRATA in Vol. LXXXVIII.

Page 245. line penult., and p. 246., lines 1, 2. 8. 15. and 19., the word
well should be *wall*.

333. l. 27. for 'in general,' read *in common*.

390. l. 24. for *αιεζυγνν*, read *αιεζυγνν*.

410. l. 16. after 'proportion,' add, *of debi*.

429. l. 13. for 'Pyrectica,' read *Pyretica*.

— l. 5. from bottom, insert a comma after *duplicatus*.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JANUARY, 1819.

ART. I. *Considerations on the principal Events of the French Revolution.* — Posthumous Work of the Baroness de Staël. Edited by the Duke de Broglie, and the Baron de Staël. Translated from the original Manuscript. 8vo. 3 Vols. 11. 16s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

THE period is now approaching at which the public may hope to receive accounts of the French Revolution, of a much more faithful and impartial character than they could formerly expect, when the great actors in that political drama were in a situation to impose restraint on those writers who, if permitted, would have spoken the truth without disguise. As yet, we have had comparatively few historical sketches that bear the marks of authenticity: the first were the *Précis de la Révolution* of the unfortunate Rabaut de St. Etienne, and the Memoirs of the not less ill-treated Madame Roland: which were followed, but at some distance of time, by the Defence of Carnot, published in 1798, when he was exiled and even sentenced to transportation by his unworthy associates in the Directory. The other narratives of the Revolution have been less the productions of eye-witnesses than of men of letters; who, labouring on the materials of others, have given to the world compositions frequently eloquent and energetic, but deficient in the cardinal point of authenticity. Of Bonaparte's adherents, scarcely any besides the Abbé de Pradt have chosen to commit their official secrets to the press: but, when the career of several veteran actors, such as Lally Tolendal, Carnot, Sieyes, Lareveillère Lepaux, and Talleyrand, shall have drawn to a close, we may probably obtain, in posthumous memoirs, a great store of information which the writers would not deem it advisable to open during their lives.

The celebrated female, to whom we owe the production now on our table, paid the debt of nature before it appeared: but, from her well known courage in giving her opinions to the world, as well as from the general texture of the book, it seems reasonable to think that, had she been still alive, the

publication would ere this have taken place. She had come, we are told in the preface, to Paris in 1816, in order to give the finishing hand to her MS., by conversing personally with the parties best acquainted with recent transactions; and she had definitively prepared for the press her first and second volume, and was occupied in revising the third, when she was attacked by an illness that carried her off, not long after she had turned her fiftieth year. Her work is partly historical, and partly philosophical: but the reflections occupy a much larger space than the relation of events. The period forming the object of her consideration comprizes forty years, viz. from 1776 to 1816: it was in 1776 that her father, M. Necker, entered on his first ministry; and, after a cursory report of his conduct in office, Mad. de S. proceeds to explain the national discontents that led to the convocation, first of the Notables, and next of the States-General of France. Necker's second ministry lasted two years, from September 1788 to September 1790, and she is particularly explicit with regard to the surprising events that occurred during this interval.

After this came a period of still greater anxiety; the unsuccessful flight of the King (June 1791) aggravated the political gloom; and in September 1792 was assembled that Convention which sent its sovereign to the scaffold, and became instrumental in all the atrocities of the Jacobins. Passing rapidly over these scenes of horror, Mad. de S. expatiates, in her second volume, on the early part of the reign of the Directory (1796 and 1797), and calls forth all the energy of her mind in delineating the usurpation and government of Bonaparte. His fall, the restoration of the Bourbons, and the events that occurred down to the second invasion of France, in 1815, occupy a part of her third volume; and the latter half of it is given to reflections on the history, government, and state of society in England.

Such is the outline of the subject-matter of these volumes: in which the facts related are not many, but derive high importance from their authenticity, their originality, and their connection with the reflections of the author. Her previous literary labours had been confined to philosophic romances, or to a description of the manners and literature of Germany; (M. R., vols. lxxiii. and lxxiv.) a country of high interest indeed, but the scene only of her temporary residence. We are now to travel with her over ground with which she is thoroughly acquainted: to follow her in the delineation of events which occurred under her father's ministry, and on the spot of her habitual residence; and to peruse her reflections on those principles of freedom which early engaged her as a study, and

became in her mature years the subject of such awful experiments. Her reflections, however, unluckily are not always conveyed in the clearest form; they require to be contemplated as well as perused: but they will amply repay this sacrifice of attention, and will communicate a number of views and circumstances in French history to which the public in this country are in general strangers. We begin with an abstract of her remarks on the

Early Constitution of France. — The excesses committed in the progress of the French Revolution have diverted the public attention from the legitimacy of its primary cause: for, though many persons are aware of the existence of disputes between the French kings and their parliaments, few, either on this or the other side of the Channel, are apprized of the nature of the right possessed by any deliberative body in France to investigate the proceedings of the executive power. The government of France, however, was in its essence no more absolute than our own; that country, like almost every other in Europe, having had from the outset a legitimate check on regal power in the voice of her nobles and clergy. Examples of opposition similar to that which procured our *Magna Charta* occur in French history, but they proved less successful, from various causes; particularly from the Legislative Body consisting not, as with us, of two great parts, but of three, viz. Nobles, Clergy, and popular Deputies; a re-partition of power which facilitated to the executive branch the means of dividing them against each other, and of eluding the result of their deliberations. In France, as in England, the Commons or people were at first of no account in the government; the contest for power lay between the King and the nobles; and it became the policy of the Crown to strengthen itself by granting privileges to the Commons, and admitting the deputies of boroughs to a place in the legislature. This admission took place in 1302, when the ruling sovereign, Philippe le Bel, stood in need of financial aid. The three orders, thus assembled, constituted the *Etats Généraux*, or States-General; and the resolutions of this great convocation were particularly remarkable in the distressful years 1355 and 1356, when France was assailed with such success by our Edward III. and the Black Prince. The disposition of the States-General, however, was perceived to approach so much to liberty, and proved so unacceptable to the executive power, that this body was convened only seventeen times in the course of three centuries (from 1302 to 1614), and was entirely discontinued after the latter period; the Crown

finding it more convenient to call in the co-operation of parliaments.

The French parliaments were altogether different from the English; and they were not, which might at first be imagined, the States-General on a reduced scale, but a body which in the middle ages had acted the part of a royal council, and had been invested (in the thirteenth century) with the power of a great court of justice. The members were not indebted for their nomination to the people, but owed it either to the king's appointment or to the practice of purchasing their situations; and, though the individuals were in general honourable, the origin and constitution of the body were by no means such as to render it a fit representation of the people. Nothing, accordingly, could be more vague than the distribution of political power in France; some persons alleging that the country never had a constitution; others, that it had once existed but had become obsolete since the days of Philippe le Bel, or even of Charlemagne; and that all was now absorbed in the comprehensive words, *Si veut le roi, si veut la loi*, "As wills the king, so wills the law." This precious doctrine was not, however, advanced until the despotic days of Louis XIV.; who maintained not only that the parliaments were bound to register his edicts on demand, but that his edicts had the force of law without their registry.

Another great cause of the anomaly and inequality of administration in France arose from the different constitutions of different provinces. Several, such as Burgundy, Dauphiny, Languedoc, and Britany, had been united progressively to the French crown under stipulations for the maintenance of their respective privileges; each province had its parliament appointed partly to administer justice, partly to take care that the royal edicts were in unison with the provincial privileges; and these parliaments were twelve in number, exclusive of that of Paris. A great discrepancy thus prevailed in the laws and usages of different provinces; and even the public burdens were not shared with impartiality, several provinces having obtained compositions for particular taxes, and continuing always to pay the same sum, while others were subjected to a progressive augmentation.

Such was the form of this very defective government: we are next to advert to the surprizing amount of abuses that had progressively accumulated. The crown was in the habit of imposing taxes by its sole authority, and laws that ought to have been deliberated in council were issued from the cabinet of the monarch. On the occurrence of a political offence, such as libel, the defendant was brought not before the

the established judges, but before an extraordinary tribunal appointed by the court: in other cases, his punishment took place without any trial, exile or imprisonment being inflicted on no authority but that of the king's *lettre de cachet*. Public employments, civil and military, were all in a manner confined to the nobility and gentry; an untitled officer had very little chance of ever rising above the rank of captain; and, with regard to taxes, the nobility, gentry, and clergy, who of all classes were the most able to pay, were in various respects exempted. Before a loan was made, the court was accustomed to obtain the sanction of the parliament of Paris, but had no scruple in exceeding the amount specified, without considering the injury thus done either to the authority of parliament or to the interest of the contractors. The civil-list disbursements had increased enormously: witness the vast expences incurred at Versailles, and the doctrine of M. de Calonne (vol. i. p. 111.) that "luxury in the court was economy on a large scale." The pension-list of France exceeded that of almost any country in Europe; responsibility to the public was never regarded, no authority being required for the issue of money but a private act signed by the king; and the payment of the public dividends was thus repeatedly delayed, the money destined for them being transferred to other purposes.* Of the ministers of such a government, we have a very appropriate sketch in the case of M. de Maurepas, who was long at the head of the cabinet of Louis XVI.

'What a singular character is an old courtier when minister! The public benefit passed for nothing in the eyes of M. de Maurepas: he thought only of what he called the King's service; and this *service du Roi* consisted in the favour to be gained or lost at court. As to business, even the most important points were all inferior to the grand object of managing the royal mind. He thought it necessary that a minister should possess a certain knowledge of his department, that he might not appear ignorant in his conversations with the King: also that he should possess the good opinion of the public, so far as to prevent an unusual share of censure from reaching the King's ears; but the spring and object of all was to please his royal master. M. de Maurepas laboured accordingly to preserve his favour by a variety of minute attentions, that he might surround the sovereign as in a net, and succeed in keeping him a stranger to all information in which he might be likely to hear the voice of sincerity and truth.'

* All these abuses are acknowledged in a publication in 1796, by M. de Monthion, who held a confidential situation under the Count d'Artois, and addressed his work to Louis XVIII.

All these abuses, evidently the result of the unchecked power of ministers, concurred to prepare the public mind for a great political change: but the more immediate cause of the Revolution was the disorder of the finances. The parliament of Paris had begun, so early as 1770, to declare that it had not the power to vote away the public money; and it was a dread of pecuniary embarrassments that produced the invitation to M. Necker, though a Protestant and a foreigner, to take on himself the department corresponding to our chancellorship of the Exchequer. In this capacity, he found means to defray the expence of several years of the American war without imposing new taxes; his personal reputation raised the French stocks; his loans were made on favourable terms; and, which is not a little surprizing, the provision for paying the interest of each loan was formed out of successive retrenchments of the public or rather of the court expenditure. He continued on this unexampled plan till 1781, when a personal difference with the prime minister, Maurepas, led to his abrupt resignation, and deprived France of all the benefit that she might have reaped in a season of peace from his vigilant economy.

After some ineffectual attempts to replace Necker by members of the parliament, the situation of finance-minister was given to the lavish and unprincipled M. de Calonne. No single man, observes Madame de S., can be considered as the author of the French Revolution: but, if one person can be said to have accelerated it more than another, that person was M. de Calonne. The financial distress consequent on his prodigality obliged him to contemplate an equalization of taxes; and, foreseeing opposition from the parliament, he resorted to the alternative of convening the *notables*, or leading men of the kingdom: a measure so replete with the ingredients of dissension, that it ought to have been hazarded only in the most tranquil times. It was now that an annual deficiency of 2,500,000l. sterling was acknowledged by the minister: the *notables* partook strongly of the public dissatisfaction; and Calonne was dismissed from office.—The Archbishop of Toulouse, his successor, was wholly unfit to meet the difficulties of the times; and, having attempted arbitrary measures, he found them so impracticable that their only result was to bring ridicule on the court.

‘The parliament called loudly on the minister to produce his account of the national receipt and expenditure, when the Abbé Sabatier, a counsellor of parliament, a man of lively wit, exclaimed, “You demand, gentlemen, the state of receipt and expenditure
(*ciats*)

(*états de recette et de dépense*), when it is the States-General (*états généraux*) that you ought to call for." This word, although introduced as a pun, seemed to cast a ray of light on the confused wishes of every one. — From this moment the Revolution was decided, for there was but one wish among all parties—the desire of convoking the States-General.'—

'The Archbishop of Toulouse now recalled the parliaments, but found them as untractable under favour as under punishment. A spirit of resistance gained ground on all sides, and petitions for the States-General became so numerous, that the minister was at last obliged to promise them in the King's name; but he delayed the period of their convocation for five years, as if the public would have consented to put off its triumph. The clergy came forward to protest against the five years, and the King gave a solemn promise to convene the assembly in May following (1789).'

The Archbishop had now lost all reputation as a minister, and M. Necker received an intimation of his approaching recall: but he was no longer sanguine in his expectations, and said to his daughter, on her bringing him the intelligence, "Ah! why did they not give me those fifteen months of the Archbishop of Toulouse! now it is too late." The state of the public mind too amply justified his apprehensions. The respect for royalty had been long since shaken by the vices of Louis XV., and by the ridiculous ascendancy allowed in political questions to his mistresses: the quarrels of the Jesuits and Jansenists had brought the clergy into disrepute; and the finances had been kept up only by bankrupt expedients. All classes felt the necessity of a change; though the wish was by no means to subvert hereditary succession, but to correct, by the establishment of fixed institutions, the errors that were inseparable from unlimited power. The nobility, so submissive under the vigorous sway of Louis XIV., now shared the general discontent, and were tired of acting the subordinate part of courtiers. The *Tiers Etat*, — by whom we are to understand all the untitled part of the nation, comprizing the learned professions, the merchants, and a proportion of the land-holders, — all felt the hardship of the exclusion of themselves and their sons from public employment; drawing an indignant comparison between England, where exertion and perseverance formed the path to advancement, and France, where all depended on birth and court-favour. M. Necker had thus no alternative but to give effect to the royal promise of convening the States-General; and, in apportioning the relative number of the deputies, it was deemed right that

those of the *Tiers Etat* should be equal to those of the *Noblesse* and the Clergy collectively.

‘Opening of the States-General, on the 5th May, 1789.

‘I shall never forget the hour that I saw the twelve hundred deputies of France pass in procession to church to hear mass, the day before the opening of the assembly. It was a very imposing sight, and very new to the French; all the inhabitants of Versailles, and many persons attracted by curiosity from Paris, collected to see it.’—

‘The nobility having fallen from its splendour by its courtier habits, by its intermixture with those of recent creation, and by a long peace; the clergy possessing no longer that superiority of information which had marked it in days of barbarism, the importance of the deputies of the *Tiers Etat* had augmented from all these considerations. Their imposing numbers, their confident looks, their black cloaks and dresses, fixed the attention of the spectators. Literary men, merchants, and a great number of lawyers, formed the chief part of this order. Some of the nobles had got themselves elected deputies of the *Tiers Etat*, and of these the most conspicuous was the Comte de Mirabeau.—The eye that was once fixed on his countenance was not likely to be soon withdrawn: his immense head of hair distinguished him from amongst the rest, and suggested the idea that, like Samson, his strength depended on it: his countenance derived expression even from its ugliness; and his whole person conveyed the idea of irregular power, but still such power as we should expect to find in a tribune of the people.’—

‘The opening of the States-General took place the next day; a large hall had been hastily erected in the avenue of Versailles, to receive the deputies. A number of spectators were admitted to witness the ceremony. A platform floor was raised to receive the King’s throne, the Queen’s chair of state, and seats for the rest of the royal family.—When Mirabeau appeared, a low murmur was heard throughout the assembly. He understood its meaning; but stepping along the hall to his seat with a lofty air, he seemed as if he were preparing to produce sufficient trouble in the country to confound the distinctions of esteem as well as all others.’

We pause a few moments in our narrative, to offer some remarks on the relative feelings of the *Noblesse* and the *Tiers Etat*. Our readers must be careful in forming an idea of that host which in France bore the name of *noblesse*, from the nobility of our own country; confined as the latter is to the peerage, and comprizing only a few hundred families. France had likewise families, such as Montmorency, Crillon, Grammont, &c., known in history by actions as distinguished as those of the ancestors of the Dukes of Northumberland, Somerset, or Marlborough: but these

these families did not exceed 200 in number; while the titles of baron, viscount, count, and marquis, were bestowed on thousands and tens of thousands who had no other claim than that of having passed a certain number of years in the service of the court, and having paid the fees for the patent of their title. Yet this ignoble assemblage, these nominal counts and viscounts, had separated themselves with no slight share of disdain from the *Tiers Etat*, or mass of the nation; arrogating all the privileges of nobility, and among others that of exemption from taxes. This odious distinction and unfair preference excited a deep and general antipathy in the minds of their untitled countrymen; and it is to this cause that we are to attribute chiefly the rancour displayed in the Revolution, and the acrimonious complaints against the *noblesse* with which the ears of English travellers are still assailed in France. In 1789 the *Tiers Etat*, or body of the nation, were by no means adverse to the crown: but their wish was to unite their interest with that of the executive power, and to accomplish, by their conjunct strength, the annihilation of these undue distinctions.

It is a remarkable fact that the inferior part of the *noblesse* were much more tenacious of title and privilege than the higher and more intelligent members of that body. Of the latter, some derived a rank from the exploits of those whose reading and reflection raised them above the prejudices of their order, and taught them to look to the general improvement of their country. That improvement was the object of hope, and the topic of conversation, in all the well-informed circles.

‘ Never was the society of Paris at once so brilliant and serious as during the first three or four years of the Revolution, reckoning from 1788 to the end of 1791. As political affairs were still in the hands of the higher classes, all the vigour of liberty, and all the grace of former politeness, were united in the same persons. Men of the *Tiers Etat*, distinguished by their information and their talents, joined those gentlemen who were prouder of their personal attainments than of the privileges of their body; and the highest questions to which social order ever gave rise, were treated by minds the most capable of understanding and discussing them. — The vigour of liberty became all at once joined to the elegance of an aristocracy: in no country, and at no time, has the art of speaking in every way been possessed in so remarkable a degree, as in the early years of the Revolution.

‘ In England, women are accustomed to be silent before men, when politics form the matter of conversation: in France, women are accustomed to lead almost all the conversation that takes place at their houses, and their minds are early formed to the facility

facility which that requires. Discussions on public affairs were thus softened by their means, and often intermingled with kind and lively pleasantry.'

The fond hopes, however, that were cherished by the society of Paris and by the bulk of the French nation, were soon clouded by dissensions among the different orders of deputies. The *Tiers Etat* demanded that all should deliberate in one assembly; which the majority of the *noblesse* and a part of the clergy resisted, being aware that they would thus be perpetually outvoted by their opponents. It was in vain that a very intelligent member of the clerical body, M. de la Luzerne, urged the division of the whole into two chambers; the higher clergy uniting with the peers, and the lower with the commons:—it was in vain that M. Necker suggested that all should vote in one assembly on questions regarding taxes, and separately as to other points, until the constitution should be settled:—moderation was not the prevailing sentiment;—the leaders of the popular deputies insisted on one chamber without reserve, and the secret advisers of the court were hopeful of attaining, by the exercise of authority, the adoption of the old division into three orders. It was under this impression that they made the King hold, on the 23d of June 1789, a *séance royale*; when, in a speech liberal in some respects but too imperative in others, he signified his commands that the division into three bodies should immediately take place. It was then that Mirabeau made his well known rejoinder, and that the deputies of the commons remained unmoved in their seats. The people forthwith took their part; vast crowds collected in the streets of Versailles; and M. Necker, who had sent in his resignation as soon as he was apprized of the tone of the intended speech, was carried in triumph by the people, and was intreated by the Queen to resume immediately his situation in the cabinet.

'The majority of the clergy, the minority of the *noblesse*, and all the deputies of the *Tiers Etat*, repaired to M. Necker, on his return from the palace; his house could hardly contain those who had pressed into it, and it was there that we saw the truly amiable traits of the French character; the vivacity of their impressions, their desire to please, and the ease with which a government may win or offend them, according as it addresses itself, well or ill, to that particular kind of imagination of which they are susceptible. I heard my father entreat the deputies of the *Tiers Etat* not to carry their claims too far. "You are now," he said, "the strongest party; it is on you then that moderation is incumbent." He described to them the situation of France, and the good which they might accomplish; several of them were affected

affected even to tears, and promised to be guided by his councils; but they asked him, in return, to be responsible to them for the intentions of the King. The royal power still inspired not only respect, but a certain degree of fear: these were the sentiments which ought to have been preserved.'

Many royalists in France are still of opinion that the Revolution might have been quelled in the outset, and cast the reproach of indecision both on M. Necker and Marshal Broglio, the commander of the troops: but they forget that, as early as 1789, the majority of the military were on the side of the people; and that, in those days, the army partook greatly of the character of a civil association, having no decided attachment to any chief, and having, from a peace of twenty-five years, necessarily become strangers to those ties that are formed only by a participation in danger and enterprise. The national ardour was directed not to military but civil objects; and it had been excited by the recent example of America, as well as by the circulation of literary works, implying the necessity of improvements in the administration of justice and the distribution of power. Views like these were altogether new to the royal advisers, whose notions never extended beyond the precincts of a court, and who could not or would not take a salutary warning from their late disappointments. One of the most conspicuous of these supporters of the old school was the Baron de Breteuil, a man who was incapable of any thing but routine, although to a superficial observer his appearance excited a very different impression. 'His rough voice,' says Madame de S., 'conveyed an idea of energy; in walking, he pressed the ground with a ponderous step, as if he would call an army from below; — and this decision of manner imposed on those who viewed the future through the medium of their hopes.' The project of M. de Breteuil, and of others of his stamp, was nothing less than to crush the popular feeling by military coercion. Aware of the doubtful disposition of the native soldiers, they secretly ordered the German troops in the pay of France to march on Paris; and when the moment for energetic operation seemed to them to have arrived, (11th July 1789,) M. Necker received a private order from the King, intimating his dismissal, and a desire that he should quit the French territory with the utmost privacy and dispatch. He immediately repaired to Flanders as the nearest frontier, and pursued his course to Swisserland along the Rhine: — but, on reaching Bâle, he obtained intelligence of the general insurrection on the 14th of July, of the destruction of the Bastile, and of the removal of the German regiments from Paris.

Paris. The Duchess of Polignac, whom he had left all powerful with the Queen, met him in Switzerland as a fugitive; and invitations from the National Assembly, with orders from the King, all pressed him to resume his situation. He returned accordingly, without the hope of doing much good, but determined to exert his utmost efforts to limit the extent of the evil.

The National Assembly was now the seat of power, and was soon divided into several very opposite parties: the "Aristocrats," called from their place of sitting the *côté droit*, and composed almost entirely of *noblesse* and prelates; the "Moderates," or advocates of a limited constitution, like the English; and finally the popular party, who inclined to democracy. The leaders of the Aristocrats were Abbé Maury and Casalès; of the Moderates, Mounier, Lally-Tolendal, and Malouet; of the popular party, Mirabeau and Sieyes.

' Mounier had been the leader of the calm and well-planned revolution in Dauphiny; enthusiasm in the cause of reason was the basis of his character; he was enlightened rather than eloquent, but consistent and firm in his path, so long as it was in his power to choose one. Malouet, whatever might be his situation, was always guided by his conscience. Never did I know a purer mind, and if he was not altogether qualified to act efficiently, it was owing to his having concerned himself with measures without regarding men: trusting always to the self-evidence of truth, without sufficiently reflecting on the means of bringing it home to the conviction of others.

' Mirabeau, who knew and who foresaw every thing, was determined to make use of his thundering eloquence only to gain himself a place in the first rank, from which he had been banished by his immorality. Sieyes was the mysterious oracle of approaching events; he has, beyond all contradiction, a mind of the greatest compass and strength, but that mind is governed by a very wayward temper; and as it was a matter of difficulty to extort a few words from him, these, from their rarity, passed for little less than orders or prophecies.—

' I once conversed with Robespierre at my father's house in 1789, when he was known merely as an advocate of the province of Artois, who carried to a great height his democratical principles. His features were mean, his complexion pale, his veins of a greenish hue; he maintained the most absurd propositions, with a coolness which had the air of conviction; and I could easily believe, that, at the beginning of the Revolution, he had adopted sincerely certain ideas, upon the equality of fortunes as well as of ranks, which he caught in the course of his reading, and with which his envious and mischievous character was delighted to arm itself.

The Duke of Orleans voted always with the popular party, but his influence in the Revolution has been greatly over-rated : it is not clear that he had any adherents of his own ; and the great movements of the Parisian populace, which successively turned the scale in favour of the Jacobins, were evidently such as could not have been excited by the distribution of money. The great misfortune, at this early and as yet unsullied æra of the Revolution, was the want of cordial union between the court and the moderate part of the assembly : such an union was the wish of Necker ; and, had it been carried into effect, there seems little doubt that France might have had from the outset all that she ought to desire, — a limited monarchy, and a double house of legislature. The secret advisers of the court, however, still hoped to bring back things to the old standard ; and the leaders of the Moderates were ill prepared to content themselves with a secondary station.

‘ Each party, during twenty-five years, has, in its turn, rejected and desired the English constitution, according as it was victor or vanquished. In 1792, the Queen said to the Chevalier de Coigny, “ I would that I had lost an arm, and that the English constitution had been established in France.” The nobility unceasingly wished for it after they had been stripped of their power and property ; and under Bonaparte the popular party would, no doubt, have been very well satisfied to have obtained it. It may be said, that the English constitution, or, in other words, the sway of reason in France, is like the fair Angelica in the comedy of the “ Gambler,” — he implores her in his distress, and neglects her when he is fortunate.’

M. Necker’s administration still lasted for more than a year, during which he made repeated efforts to temper the impatient zeal of the democratic members, and to assimilate the new constitution to that of England. Our limits do not permit us to enter into detail either on the part taken by him personally, or on the general measures of the *Assemblée Constituante* ; and we must confine ourselves to an account of that remarkable man whom Madame de S. describes as the chief instrument in opposing her father’s views, but whose talents were too distinguished not to extort from her the strongest admiration.

‘ Mirabeau, gifted with the most comprehensive and energetic mind, thought himself sufficiently strong to overthrow the government, and to erect on its ruins a system, of some kind or other, that would have been the work of his own hands. This gigantic project was the ruin of France, and the ruin of himself ; for he acted at first in the spirit of faction, although his real manner of judging was that of the most reflecting statesman. He was then

of the age of forty, and had passed his whole life in law-suits, abduction of women, and in prisons; he was excluded from good society, and his first wish was to regain his station in it. But he thought it necessary to set on fire the whole social edifice, that the doors of the Paris saloons might be opened to him.' —

' M. Necker has said of him in one of his writings that he was " a demagogue by calculation, and an aristocrat by disposition." There cannot be a more correct sketch of the man; not only was his mind too enlightened to avoid perceiving the impossibility of a democratic government in France; but he would not have desired it, had it been practicable.' —

' Nature had effectually seconded him by giving him those defects and advantages that operate on a popular assembly: sarcasm, irony, force, and originality. The moment he rose to speak, the moment he stepped to the tribune, the curiosity of all was excited; nobody esteemed him, but the impression of his talents was such, that no one dared to attack him.'

The following passages relate to the closing part of the career of Mirabeau, whose death took place unexpectedly in the spring of 1791:

' A man of great family from Brabant, of a sagacious and penetrating mind, acted as the medium between the court and Mirabeau: he had prevailed on him to correspond secretly with the Marquis de Bouillé, the General in whom the royal family had the most confidence. The project of Mirabeau was, it seems, to convey the King to Compiègne, in the midst of the regiments on whom M. de Bouillé thought dependance could be placed, and to call thither the Constituent Assembly, that it might be disengaged from the influence of Paris, and brought under that of the court. But Mirabeau had, at the same time, the intention of causing the English constitution to be adopted; for never will a truly superior man desire the re-establishment of arbitrary power. —

' I have had in my hands a letter of Mirabeau written for the purpose of being shown to the King: he there made offer of all his means to restore to France an efficient and respected, but a limited monarchy; he made use, among others, of this remarkable expression: " I should lament to have laboured at nothing but a vast destruction." The whole letter did honour to the justness of his views. His death was a great misfortune at the time it happened; a transcendent superiority in the career of thought always offers great resources. —

' I will confess, then, notwithstanding the frightful faults of Mirabeau, notwithstanding the just resentment which I felt for the attacks that he allowed himself to make on my father in public, (for, in private, he never spoke of him but with admiration,) that his death struck me with grief, and all Paris experienced the same sensation. During his illness an immense crowd collected daily and hourly before his door: that crowd made not the smallest noise, from dread of disturbing him; it was frequently renewed

renewed in the course of the twenty-four hours, and persons of different classes all behaved with equal respect. —

‘ Mirabeau knew that his death was approaching. At that moment, far from sinking under affliction, he had a feeling of pride: the cannon were firing for a public ceremony; he called out, “I hear already the funeral of Achilles.” In truth, an intrepid orator, who should defend with constancy the cause of liberty, might compare himself to a hero. “After my death,” said he again, “the factious will share among them the shreds of the monarchy.” He had conceived the plan of repairing a great many evils; but it was not given to him to be the expiator of his faults. He suffered cruelly in the last days of his life; and, when no longer able to speak, wrote to Cabanis, his physician, for a dose of opium, in these words of Hamlet: “to die — to sleep.” He received no consolation from religion: he was struck by death in the fulness of the interests of this world, and when he thought himself near the object at which his ambition pointed. —

‘ The day after his death, no member of the Constituent Assembly cast an unmoved eye towards the place where Mirabeau was accustomed to sit. The great oak had fallen; the rest were no longer to be distinguished.’

Necker, on retiring from office, withdrew into Switzerland, but Mad. de Staël resided chiefly at Paris, and continued a spectator of the progress of the Revolution. The royal authority withstood the shock for three years; a period indicative of great attachment in the French to their sovereign, when it is considered that, during almost all this time, they were under the impression of insincerity on the part of the court, and of a secret counteraction of those reforms which they desired with the utmost eagerness. The majority of the assembly was long favourable to royalty: though apprehensive of the influence of the Queen and her advisers, they dreaded still more the horrors of anarchy; and hence, after the King had been brought back from Varennes (June 1791), they still clung around him, and sought, by obtaining his solemn acceptance of the constitution, to remove the distrust excited by his flight. The new assembly, which met in October 1791, was less friendly in disposition, and was placed in circumstances of still greater difficulty: war burst forth with Austria and Prussia; the French troops sustained defeats; and an understanding between the court and the invaders might expose Paris to military subjugation. — Hence perpetual distrust and even charges against ministers; a sentence of transportation against those priests who refused the constitutional oath; the support of soldiers in insurrection against their officers; and finally the calling to Paris a legion of Marseillois, who were prepared to go to the greatest extremes against the royal authority. The King having refused his sanction to the

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the act against the priests, the people were easily persuaded that this opposition arose from treachery, and the anniversary of the destruction of the Bastille (14 July) was celebrated in 1792 under the most alarming auspices. Mad. de Staël was a witness of this ceremony in the *Champ de Mars*: 'the King,' she says, 'still maintained a calm aspect, but the eyes of the Queen were swollen with tears, and her countenance will never be effaced from my remembrance.'

We are now arrived at the æra of insurrection and massacre. The tumult of 10 August was contrived by Danton and other Jacobin leaders, in the hope of depriving the King of life in a conflict: because the throne would thus have been rendered vacant, without stamping on the democrats the odium of assassination. This part of their plan, however, was defeated by the timely retreat of the royal family to the National Convention: but the cause of royalty had fallen, and all things were prepared for the declaration of the republican form. Madame de S. left Paris with great personal danger amid the massacres of September; and she passes rapidly over the horrors that ensued, and which continued with such fatal progression until the fall of Robespierre, 27th of July 1794.*

Mad. de Staël revisited Paris in 1795. At the end of that year, the Directory were installed, and governed France till the close of 1799; the earlier half of which period was marked by liberal and moderate measures, and the latter by a return to the violence if not to the cruelty of the Jacobins. The 18 Fructidor (4th of Sept. 1797) constitutes the line of demarcation between these very different periods: it was on that day that Carnot and Barthélémy were excluded from the Directory; that Augereau entered the legislative chambers with an armed force; and that Pichegru and many respectable citizens were sentenced to transportation. During the two following years, the executive power remained in the hands of Barras and others equally incapable of governing: but we pass over this uninteresting interval, and hasten to a man and to events more worthy of the pen of the present author. Here, however, we must for the present suspend our report, and reserve for our next Number the observations of the fair writer on several interesting points: such as the merits of Bonaparte as a civil governor; the present state of public feeling in France; and the comparative attractions of French and English society.

[To be continued.]

* See an emphatic description of the insurrection in Paris during this period, in our extracts (Vols. lxxxiv, lxxxv.) from the historical work of Lavallée on the French Revolution.

ART. II. *A Narrative of the Shipwreck of the Oswego, on the Coast of South Barbary, and of the Sufferings of the Master and the Crew while in Bondage among the Arabs; interspersed with numerous Remarks upon the Country and its Inhabitants; and the peculiar Perils of that Coast.* By Judah Paddock, her late Master. 4to. 11. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

IT appears from this publication that the Americans have been very slow in their belief of the narrative given by their countryman, Capt. Riley, of his captivity and sufferings among the Arabs in Africa*: though among us his story met with general acceptance, and was considered in the main as founded on truth, if in some points it were open to suspicion. We have, however, been led to understand that, even here, some persons have been wavering in the credit which they originally assigned to the statements made in that work. Under these circumstances, Mr. Judah Paddock, who from his phraseology appears to be of the religious persuasion of the Quakers, has been induced, at the request of several gentlemen whose letters are printed in his preface, to attempt a corroboration of Mr. Riley's narrative, by a detail of some adventures which occurred to himself, when he suffered shipwreck in the *Oswego* on the same coast in the year 1800. We must confess that we are unable to conceive what purpose Mr. Paddock could propose to himself by such a work; or, now that we have read it, how it can possibly tend in any way or shape either to confirm or to invalidate a previous narrative. Had any doubt, indeed, prevailed in America respecting the existence of the continent of Africa, or any hesitation in believing that the Arabs of the desert made captives of all mariners wrecked on their coast and cruelly treated them, or any scepticism relative to the inconvenience of walking bare-footed over sharp rocks, Mr. Paddock's adventures would have set all such questions at rest, and might therefore have been deemed invaluable: but, if we presume the Americans to take all such matters for granted, we cannot imagine what other facts related by Mr. Riley are confirmed by Mr. Paddock. Our readers will understand that we do not ridicule the idea of any person, who has undergone sufferings, detailing the same in print: our remarks relate only to the professed intention of the present publication. Let us, nevertheless, examine the book with reference to this intention; — this testimony *a priori*, for it will be observed that the present writer's adventures preceded those of Riley by several years.

* See Rev. Vol. lxxxiv. N.S. p. 127.

Mr. Paddock has thought, judiciously enough, that any man professing to confirm the statements of another should prove himself to be worthy of credit; and he has also seen that the excuse of publishing 'at the request of a few friends' has been more frequently advanced by authors than credited by readers. He consequently commences his volume in a manner that is rather singular, but is calculated to remove both these difficulties. The first object is attained by certain signatures, &c. to the probity of his own character generally, and one testimony as to the real fact of his captivity and adventures from a fellow-sufferer. The second point is established by a letter from Mr. De Witt Clinton, requesting the author to undertake the work before us; followed by the said author's reply, which is rather *lengthy*, but in which it seems to us that he declines the task, of the ultimate performance of which nevertheless we have now such a solid demonstration on our desk. It must be confessed that all this preliminary matter is not wholly unnecessary; for, if the present writer had been anonymous, or concealed by a name which might have been regarded as fictitious, we see nothing in his book which might not have been written without any actual experience of the circumstances detailed; — nothing which a few former narratives of similar adventures, lying on the same table, or even a general recollection of their contents, might not have very easily supplied. We fairly allow, therefore, that, had not an authenticated name appeared in the title-page, we should have had considerable doubts whether we were reading a real history, or a compilation designed merely for the amiable purpose of instructing and amusing young persons during their Christmas-vacation.

The author professes to write without any notes, and from reminiscences naturally weakened by the interval of eighteen years, which unfortunately fail him in the names of the greater proportion of his crew. It appears, however, that he sailed from New-York in the ship *Oswego* of Hudson, of 260 tons, in the month of January 1800, bound to Cork, the crew amounting to thirteen persons. Having performed this voyage, and discharged his cargo, he determined to ballast his vessel, go to the Cape de Verd islands, and take a load of salt, skins, &c. for New York. At Cork, his crew was re-inforced by an Irishman designated by the common name of Pat, whose rebellious practices in his own country seem to have made a change of scene desirable; and whose subsequent conduct, by indulging in spirituous liquors secreted from the wreck, proved the cause of many misfortunes in Africa. We do not presume to say how far the errors in reckoning, which caused the

the shipwreck, were attributable to the incapacity of the master or his mates; or whether they were such as might have occurred to able navigators: but it so happened that, on the third of April, without any particular stress of weather, the vessel struck during the night on the coast of Barbary, probably near a promontory marked in some charts as Cape Sabe, about the latitude 27°. It was the wish of the master to stay by the wreck, until preparations could have been made for a voyage in the long-boat, and it seems that such an attempt would have afforded a fair promise of success: but his intentions were frustrated by the obstinacy of some of the crew; and the whole party went ashore in the boat, without provisions or water.

Although the men reached the land in safety, the boat was rendered unfit for sea unless it underwent sundry repairs. They ascended a small sand-hill to wring the water from their clothes: but, 'it being dark, (says Mr. P.) we could see nothing:' although, he adds immediately afterward, 'the ship was in sight with all sails standing:' the *sight* of which he describes as causing many sensations of regret in himself and his crew, for the step which they had taken in deserting her.

It was not without very considerable difficulty that some necessary articles were afterward procured from the wreck, by swimming and other contrivances; a tent was then pitched on the shore, regular watches established, and preparations begun for repairing the long-boat. On the night of the sixth, Pat and his comrade, who ought to have been on the watch, made themselves drunk, and fell asleep; and it appeared in the morning, by the tracks of footsteps on the sand, that the tent had been visited by two men, who had retired without observation or causing present molestation. It will naturally occur to the reader, that this event would redouble the activity of the crew in repairing their boat, which two days' work might have rendered sea-worthy, and in which it appears that they had never any doubt of being able to accomplish a passage to the Canaries or elsewhere:—but the effect seems to have been altogether the reverse; for, from this instant, we read no more of the boat, but only of preparations which were immediately commenced for a journey by land to Santa Cruz, a supposed distance of about one hundred and eighty miles. We presume that Mr. Paddock's memory has failed him with regard to the reasons which led to this resolution; for he states none, and moves forwards into African slavery, as if pre-destined to confirm by his experience of it the accounts of future adventurers; and this too was done when, as

we collect from all that precedes, the means of escape from the coast were in no despicable degree of forwardness.

The only reason for this step which we can assign, in default of any alleged cause, is the fear lest the nightly visitors should return with increased numbers at a very short interval: but how their views could be defeated by moving away over sand, which bore ample traces of the line of march pursued, we are at a loss to imagine. The event, without descending to particulars, was such as our readers will have anticipated; the crew fell into the hands of a party of Arabs, were stripped nearly to nakedness, and underwent the same species of sufferings that are feelingly described by Mr. Riley, though perhaps hardly to the same extent. At one settlement, they found some other Christian captives, who were enabled to act as interpreters for them. The miseries incident to this state of slavery form, it may be supposed, the bulk of the volume: but, as they do not differ from other accounts which we have transferred to our pages elsewhere, it would be little better than repetition if we were now to record them. We shall therefore content ourselves with a desultory notice of a few circumstances related.

Previously to their captivity, the crew discovered a cluster of from twenty to thirty untenanted houses without roofs, 'indifferently well built, without mortar.' What this material was which was compacted without mortar, we are not informed; and we are consequently the less able to decide on the opinion in which the party united, that these cabins had been built by some shipwrecked mariners, who had made use of their sails as a covering for the houses.* The theory seems nevertheless very absurd on the face of it. The remains of a wreck had been discovered near the spot on which they suffered the same calamity; they were now forty miles from that part of the shore; and they presume that the crew of this former vessel had, at such a distance from the scene of their disaster, raised a small town 'indifferently well built,' and consisting of more than twenty houses. At the same place, 'a quantity of human hair' is said to have been discovered in a cask, and not far off was a pile of human bones, 'as many as could be contained in a hogshead.' The inferences which Mr. Paddock drew from this spectacle will readily be anticipated; and it is much easier for us to differ from him in his conclusions, than to venture a disbelief of the fact related. In a subsequent part of the volume, he

* It is subsequently mentioned, we find, that they were built of stone.

again refers to this story, and relates a long confession of his master Ahomed the chief of a tribe, who purchased him from the first captors, respecting the murder of a whole ship's crew at this spot by him and his companions: at the recital of which, however, the idea of cannibalism does not appear to have recurred to Mr. Paddock's mind.

The captivity took place on the 6th of April; and, on the 27th of the same month, the party had reached an inhabited and cultivated country, having many days of rest from travelling in the interval. A bargain was early struck with Ahomed, for a price of ransom to be paid on reaching Suerah, or Mogadore; and it appears to have been his general intention to abide by his compact, which was probably the most lucrative mode in which he could dispose of his prize; indeed, although sundry disappointments and delays frequently induced the captives to suspect his purposes, they nevertheless answered in the end to the bargain which he had struck. — The general course of the journey was north, and north-east. In the performance of it, they reached, soon after their entrance on the inhabited country, Ahomed's fields of grain, at the period when the harvest was ripe: their policy was to refuse their labour in reaping it, or, when compelled, to perform their task in so slovenly a manner as to prove rather detrimental than lucrative to their employers; lest, by their usefulness in such occupations, their value as slaves should be deemed superior to the stipulated price of their ransoms. About the same time they attempted an escape, but, being overtaken, were conveyed to the house of Salar, a sister of Ahomed; where they continued under the guardianship merely of her and an old Arab, during the remainder of the harvest. Yet it does not appear that, although they were so weakly guarded, and frequently sent to considerable distances to collect fuel, they ever renewed their former attempt, notwithstanding that the opportunities for it were so much more favourable.

In their subsequent journey towards Santa Cruz, the party arrived at a settlement of Foulahs, of whom this description is given:

‘ Here the conduct of the families was quite the reverse of what we had seen in this barbarous country before, and we could not conjecture the cause of it. Ahomed, after repeatedly calling for a bowl, without being heeded, ordered Jack to go into the yard and take one; which the boy accordingly did, after walking nearly across the yard before he could find one. He then took it to the well, which was near at hand, and we all drank: after which Ahomed said, “ Go on, and let the bowl lie where it is ;

you shall not carry it back." As we walked on, we found Ahomed in no condition to be talked to; but muttering as he went along with the rest. I was waiting for an opportunity to question him concerning the very circumstance, about which he at length began to speak of his own accord. "Such fellows," said he, "are not fit to live." Upon my asking him who they were, he replied, "They belong to a sect called *Foulah*. They will not mix with the other inhabitants, but choose to live altogether by themselves; and are so stupid, that if the Emperor of Morocco should march an army to cut off the whole race, they would not defend themselves, but would die like fools, as they are." I asked him if they used fire-arms. "No," said he, "they make no use of them; and if God was pleased to send a Christian ship ashore near them, they would neither seize upon the goods nor the men, nor would they buy a slave of any kind." I asked him if they were numerous; and he answered, "No, they are not numerous; but the dwellings you see on the sides of the hills yonder are theirs, and in many other places they are to be found; and wherever they are, they always keep together by themselves." Finally, I asked him, if they were Mahometans. "Yes," he answered, "they are, or else we would destroy them; but they are poor ignorant dogs, and little better than the Christians."

By some parts of Ahomed's description of the Foulahs, I was reminded of the religious sect among us commonly called Shaking Quakers, a harmless, industrious honest people, who keep to themselves, and avoid intermixing with any other Christian sects."

The reception at Santa Cruz by the Moorish governor is described as kind and humane: but the injunctions of better treatment, which he gave to Ahomed, seem to have been little regarded after the party had quitted the walls. At length, on the 16th of May, they came in sight of Mogadore, where the British consul did every thing which humanity could suggest both for Mr. Paddock and his companions, and procured the release of him and those who had travelled with him, from the miseries of African slavery.

Here, then, end the adventures of Mr. Paddock and those of his crew who became slaves to the same party of Arabs with himself; and the remainder of the volume is occupied with such observations as preceding events, and passing circumstances at Mogadore, were likely to suggest. We quote the description of one of the guardians of the night in that city.

'Among a number of the police regulations, that which I shall now relate was a very extraordinary one. Soon after my arrival at Mogadore, the consul and I were going home late at night, and on turning a corner were near treading on a man who lay on his side in the street. After we had passed him, I remarked that in places where men were given to intoxication, this would have been no common sight, but that among Mahometans, who never touched ardent spirits, it was strange to see a man lying asleep in
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the street. To this the consul replied, " You are very much mistaken ; that is a watchman, who is awake, and with his ear to the ground that he may hear the better. In that position he is obliged to lie, except a noise alarm him ; to be asleep on his watch would be as much as his life is worth. It is no uncommon thing," he added, " for the governor to take the rounds of the town, and look every watchman in the face ; and by means of this precaution there is neither house-breaking nor riots here." Whether this watch is perpetual throughout the year, or only occasional, I don't recollect. In justice to the governor, I must express my opinion, that he kept his town the most quiet and orderly of any one that I ever visited ; a clear proof that some little good is mingled with the abundant and detestable evil of despotism.

We now leave our readers to form their own judgment whether Mr. Paddock's narrative tends to confirm that of Mr. Riley. The sufferings in a state of slavery are undoubtedly similar in each case : but we imagine the real question relative to Mr. Riley to be, not whether such are the miseries of captivity among the Arabs, but whether he personally underwent them ; a question which seems to us to remain precisely where it did before this publication.

Again : the most important part of Mr. Riley's communications are those which he professes to have received from Arab-traders : but of the subjects to which they related we find no notice in the narrative of Mr. Paddock. It will naturally be inquired whether, in the next place, we credit the adventures of Mr. Paddock himself ; and here we can only reply that we certainly have had some suspicions during the perusal of them, to which the style and manner of the narrative have contributed more than any thing that impugns credibility from a paradoxical appearance. In the events recorded, we see little or nothing to exclude belief : but in the manner of recording them we are occasionally surprised by a minuteness of memory, regarding time and place, which seems to form a strong contrast with the weakness of reminiscences on other heads.

If, however, full credit may be given to this narrative, and equal belief to the motives which induced the author to publish it, which profess merely to bear in view the corroboration of his countryman's statements, and to have no regard to personal emolument, we cannot but observe a very great error of judgment in causing it to be printed in the most expensive form in London ; whence it must make a retrograde movement to America, to answer the purposes for which it was undertaken ; and where, on its arrival, from its form, paper, and typography, it must be sold at such a price that,

that, in all probability, very few persons will be found to purchase it. Possibly, indeed, it may already have appeared in a cheaper form in America, and the book on our table may be a re-publication adapted to the English taste for quarto volumes: but no advertisement or notice is affixed, to lead to any such conclusion.

ART. III. *Sibylline Leaves*: a Collection of Poems. By S. T. Coleridge, Esq. 8vo. pp. 103. 10s. 6d. Boards. Fenner.

GIFTED as, in our judgment, Mr. Coleridge is with much the strongest and most original powers of all the WATER-POETS of the day, why has he fallen short even of the confined praise, and comparative popularity, which have attended his brethren of the Lakes? Is the answer to this question to be found in any caprice or corruption of national taste, or in the abuse of those gifts of nature and (we may add) of those acquirements of art, which this author so eminently possesses? The solution of the problem depends on a reference to both these causes. With a more vigorous and distinguishing imagination, with a more condensed and vivid phraseology, and lastly with deeper learning, than most of his poetical rivals and contemporaries, why, we say, is Mr. C. surpassed by almost all of them in literary reputation? Perhaps the exertion of thought which it requires to enter into all his higher qualities as a poet, or perhaps the purely moral and (as we think) often soundly political cast of his sentiments, may have obstructed his favour with a light and frivolous generation of readers. — On the other hand, he has frequently dealt in those wonders and horrors, and in that mysterious delineation of bad passions, which seem to characterize the exclusively favourite style of the present moment in Great Britain. How, then, has he missed the aim of all, that golden celebrity which several inferior writers of the same kind have attained? In the first place, it must be allowed, and here perhaps is the principal cause of the phenomenon, that Mr. Coleridge, in these Germanized productions of the hyperbolically tremendous school, has even out-horrorized the usual *quantum suff.* of the horrible; and he has, with equal injudiciousness, contrived to blend even with such matters as would have pleased the unhealthy palate of the public, certain Platonic reveries or metaphysic mysticisms of his favourite modern philosopher Kant; which even the love for the unintelligible, now so prevalent among us, cannot entirely pretend to relish.

Again: we have to allege against Mr. Coleridge, considered as a candidate for contemporary popularity, the extraordinary fault of being too varied and too short in his productions. Had the "Ancient Mariner," or the "Christabel," been dilated into metrical romances, first published in quarto, (some two or three hundred copies, *at the most*,) and then rapidly succeeded by several editions, of four or five hundred each, in octavo; — or had one *well-seasoned* edition re-appeared, like an old friend with a new face, with sundry fresh title-pages, even before the town was again empty; — wonders might have been worked in this way for Mr. Coleridge's popularity. In the first instance, however, he compresses matter enough for a *handsome volume* into a two-penny pamphlet; then he lets a friend bury his jewels in a heap of sand of his own; then he scatters his "Sibylline Leaves" over half a hundred perishable newspapers and magazines; then he suffers a manuscript-poem to be handed about among his friends till all its bloom is brushed off; and how can such a poet, so managing his own concerns, hope to be popular? It is a hope, we should think, that Mr. C. must have long renounced; and, if he *amuses* himself by composition, he must be satisfied with *profiting* others. The charges of brevity and of mismanagement, which we have brought against Mr. C., neither he nor his friends will be disposed to consider as very serious accusations: but, at all events, they must allow them their due weight in the question of popularity.

We fancy that we hear it asked, "How has Mr. Coleridge been guilty of *variety*? Surely, there is a sameness, and a monotony too, in his Cumæan murmurs, which should guard him against any such imputation." — Granted: but we mean that Mr. C. has not endeavoured to impress on incongruous poems, — poems that agree neither in subject nor in character, — *one general* and pompous appellation. He has never given us a series of trifles, under the imposing and *uniform* superscription of "Poems of Fancy," "Poems of Imagination," &c. &c. &c.; and, by avoiding these commonplace arts of book-making, or these presuming displays of vanity, he has proportionably suffered in fame with the larger and less discriminating mass of *professing* readers of poetry. •It is surprizing, indeed, to a person newly initiated in these mysteries, to observe how much of modern literary distinction depends on *form*, and how little on *substance*! Mr. Coleridge has, doubtless, deserted the high post which appears to have been assigned to him among his countrymen; and

and he has, in two respects, rendered his conspicuous talents of little comparative utility to himself or others : — he has never endeavoured to produce one great, sustained work, on a generally interesting subject ; he has never concentrated his scattered rays of intellect into one luminous body, round which the minor efforts of his genius might have revolved in calm and obedient brilliancy. Possessed as he is of several languages, versed in the best authors of many ages and countries, and necessarily improved by the varied observations of a life passed neither in one scene nor in one species of occupation*, Mr. C. might surely have *commanded* his poetical powers into a more noble and useful channel than that in which they have hitherto run on, in a noiseless sort of obscurity. The stream has wound among rocks, varied indeed with lichens and mosses, overhung by the weeping birch and the dwarfish oak, and occasionally betraying some venerable ivy-mantled tower on its banks : but we wish to see it emerging from these lovely solitudes, and, increased by kindred fountains from the neighbouring hills, flow over the open plains in rich and majestic beauty, — wash the walls of many a noble city, — and issue, crowned with honours and wealth and blessings, into the unbounded ocean. We must not pursue the metaphor and contemplate the stream in question as buried in that said ocean of posterity ; for we really believe that such a fate, as this last, would not attend any worthy and patient exertion of the genius and learning of Mr. Coleridge.

Of the second great deficiency of this author, viz. of his *taste*, we have hitherto said nothing : but many and great are his offences when weighed in the balance, if measured by the standard of classical antiquity. By his lectures on poetical subjects, we believe that he contributed, very materially, to prepare the public mind first for an endurance, then for an approbation, of those various and anomalous compositions which of late years have wholly altered, and to our fancies wholly debased, the popular character of English poetry. By an overcharged fondness for our more early writers ; by an unjust depreciation of the genius and style of their successors ; by dwelling with ardent love on the gigantic prodigies of Elizabeth, and James, and the first Charles, and marking with comparatively cold applause the happiest efforts of the subsequent periods ; by making our *Augustan*

* We learn these facts from Mr. Coleridge's literary life and opinions ; a recent work, to which we hope soon to direct the attention of our readers.

age, in a word, a *Lucretian* instead of a *Virgilian* æra; Mr. Coleridge (and we have no doubt that he will rejoice in the accusation) has, we are persuaded by many testimonies and by many indications, succeeded in Gothicizing, as largely as any one of his contemporaries, the literary taste of his countrymen of the passing century.* We shall not any farther anticipate what we have to say of this gentleman's perverse critical labours, *ut nigra in candida vertat*, to turn Cowper and Wordsworth into poets; reserving any requisite observations of this kind to our examination of his *Biographia Literaria*, and at present confining ourselves to the topics more exclusively suggested by his *Sibylline Leaves*.

‘The following collection has been entitled *SIBYLLINE LEAVES*; in allusion to the fragmentary and widely scattered state in which they have been long suffered to remain. It contains the whole of the author's poetical compositions, from 1793 to the present date, with the exception of a few works not yet finished, and those published in the first edition of his juvenile poems, over which he has no controul. They may be divided into three classes: first, A Selection from the Poems added to the second and third editions, together with those originally published in the *LYRICAL BALLADS*, which, after having remained many years out of print, have been omitted by Mr. Wordsworth in the recent collection of all his minor poems, and of course revert to the author. Second, Poems published at very different periods, in various obscure or perishable journals, &c., some with, some without, the writer's consent; many imperfect, all incorrect. The third and last class is formed of Poems which have hitherto remained in manuscript. The whole is now presented to the reader collectively; with considerable additions and alterations, and as perfect as the author's judgment and powers could render them.’

We could not give a shorter account of this volume, and have therefore extracted the preceding passage. At the risk of some repetitions†, we shall take a cursory view of the whole publication; since, as the author informs us, he is to be henceforth employed in very different studies; and he now bids adieu to the Muses, not as Judge Blackstone did, but in the words of Virgil, or pseudo-Virgil:

* It may be asked, how this opinion is consistent with the comparative unpopularity of Mr. C.? We answer that we distinguish the critic and the lecturer from the poet; and, moreover, that the unpopularity in question arises rather from accidental than from essential causes.

† The reader will find accounts of Mr. Coleridge's various publications by consulting the *General Index* to our New Series, which has just appeared.

*"Ite hinc, Camœnæ! Vos quoque ite, suaves,
Dulces Camœnæ! Nam (fatebimur verum)
Dulces fuistis! Et tamen meas chartas
Revisitote: sed pudenter, et rarò."*

Go hence, ye Muses! charming to my youth,
And cherished Muses! for (I'll own the truth)
Cherished ye were: — yet go! If e'er again
Ye come, come rarely to my modest strain. REV.

Since, then, Mr. Coleridge, according to his own most suspicious intimation, is not likely again to appear before us as a poet, we think that we are required in this place to give some general estimate of the only complete collection of his productions which he has presented to the public.

We will not, however, *begin with the beginning* in this case; for the childish poems, which some kind friends have persuaded Mr. C. to prefix to his real exordium, are wholly unworthy of his maturer abilities.

'The Rime of the Ancient Mariner' appeared at a time when, to use a bold but just expression, with reference to our literary taste, "*Hell made holiday*," and "*Raw heads and bloody-bones*" were the only fashionable entertainment for man or woman. Then Germany was poured forth into England, in all her flood of skulls and numskulls: then the romancing novelist ran raving about with midnight torches, to shew death's heads on horseback, and to frighten full-grown children with mysterious band-boxes, hidden behind curtains in bed-rooms: then was Ossian revived as a seer of ghosts, and a lurker in caverns of banditti: then rocks were vocal, amid all their snows, with the moans of passing spirits; and then sang the Ancient Mariner,—

"Lord bless us, *how* he sang!"

It would be labour wasted, and time miscounted, if at the present moment we were to busy ourselves "in thrice slaying the slain," and in chasing hobgoblins from the field who have already vanished into their native darkness. We shall therefore occupy our precious moments in a better task; in selecting from the said 'Ancient Mariner' a few bright and inspired lines,

(" *Apparent rari nantes in gurgite vasto*,"

as Fielding's critic has it,) which will live long and merrily, when their numerous surrounding brethren are buried in congenial forgetfulness.

A Ship

A Ship becalmed.

' Day after day, day after day,
*We stuck**, nor breath nor motion;
 As idle as a painted ship
 Upon a painted ocean.'

Sleep.

' Oh Sleep! it is a gentle thing,
 Beloved from pole to pole; —
 To Mary Queen the praise be given!
 She sent the gentle sleep from heaven,
 That slid into my soul.'

Awaking, after Illness.

' I moved, and could not feel my limbs:
 I was so light — almost
 I thought that I had died in sleep,
 And was a blessed ghost.'

The first Sight of our Country, after long and dangerous Absence.

' Oh! dream of joy! is this indeed
 The light-house top I see?
 Is this the hill? Is this the kirk?
 Is this my own countree?'

A Calm Night at Sea.

' The harbour-bay was clear as glass,
 So smoothly it was strewn!
 And on the bay the moonlight lay,
 And the shadow of the moon.'

We have purposely avoided any of the horrors of this poem; and, as far as we could, any passage which required the aid of the context to give it due effect: but these little selections will surely prove what Mr. Coleridge *could do* in this humbler ballad style, if he would but

— "fling away the worser part of him,
 And live the purer with the better half."

We shall devote our undivided attention to that "better half," as long as we can; and, when we *must* change the key, we can assure him that it will sound almost as discordantly in our ears as in his own.

In the author's youthful zeal for freedom, he felt, "like thousands equally on fire," the joy, and the glory, and the exultation, of the first dawn of liberty in France. Like the

* How vexatious it is not to be able to quote even four lines, without some drawback from their merit! When a sailor even is made to speak in *verse*, he should not be vulgar.

same thousands, he wept over the dream of mistaken honour; found revolutionary despotism, where he sought for rational freedom; and awoke to painful conviction at the moment when Swisserland was invaded, and patriotic defence was turned into tyrannical aggression. His spirited Ode to France, on this occasion, was mentioned in our xxixth vol. p. 43.

The calmer and more domestic reflections which follow, intitled '*Fears in Solitude*,' written in 1798, strike us as very pleasing in thought, and as very powerful in realizing those visions of retirement which all ardent imaginations, at some period of life, delight to embrace. They were noticed by us at the same time and in the same volume of the M. R. with the Ode to France.

The next object of our panegyrical selection is the poem well intitled '*Love*.' We scarcely know, any where, a more touching and delicate description of the first interchange of affection, than he has given in this little piece: but our readers are, doubtless, acquainted with the simple charms of '*Genevieve*.' The picture, taken from this subject, and placed some years since in the exhibition of the Royal Academy, appeared to us very inadequate to the expression of the original.

' The moonshine, stealing o'er the scene,
Had blended with the lights of eve;
And she was there, my hope, my joy,
My own dear Genevieve.

* * * * *

' I told her how he pined; and ah!
The deep, the low, the pleading tone,
With which I sang another's love,
Interpreted my own.

* * * * *

' All impulses of soul and sense
Had thrill'd my guileless Genevieve;
The music, and the doleful tale,
The rich and balmy eve;

' And hopes, and fears that kindle hope,
An undistinguishable throng,
And gentle wishes long subdued,
Subdued and cherish'd long!

' She wept with pity and delight,
She blush'd with love and virgin-shame;
And like the murmur of a dream
I heard her breathe my name.'

How

How is it possible for a poet, who possesses such an art as this, to deviate from the style in which he is sure to give delight, — the old, the established classical style of English poetry, — and to run after meteors which he himself, and Mr. Southey, and Mr. Wordsworth, have kindled: — meteors of prosaic expression, meteors of vulgar and most familiar talk, meteors of dim and obstinate dullness?

We meet with some pretty lines (indeed, two sets of pretty lines) to an 'Unfortunate Woman.' Mr. Coleridge's early object of admiration, Mr. Bowles, taught him this title, and perhaps turned his mind to the subject: but Mr. Bowles writes like a person who has seen and has had a sympathy in the actual misery which he describes; while Mr. Coleridge, from beginning to end, calls the poor being a '*myrtle-leaf*!' This reminds us, strongly enough, of some mock stanzas which we once saw, addressed to Messrs. Wordsworth, Southey, and Co., on their fellow-feeling, their Hindu compassion, for all the tribes of vegetables. The author is supposed to have found a handsome *oak-apple*, rolled in the dust, in a vale in Devonshire; and, as King Charles's day was near, he thus expressed himself:

" Ill-fated fruit! thou should'st have been enroll'd
In a broad covering of resplendent gold!

— — — — —
God help thee, oak-apple! — thy fate is hard."

The stanzas which follow, on the same wretched subject of female prostitution, are more feeling: but they, too, end with 'sky-larks,' and we know not what. The pathos of Mr. Coleridge is rather general than particular; it is the tenderness of a benevolent and reflecting mind, rather than the sudden impulse of an afflicted heart.

We are much amused by the verses composed in a *Concert Room*; for they certainly convey no unjust description of the sham admiration of music, and the stupid pretence of being "moved with concord of sweet sounds," which are so evident to any real musician, or real lover of music, on all such occasions. These verses, by the way, clearly prove the satirical powers of their author; in which, we are inclined to think, his main strength lies; and which he would do well to cultivate by every auxiliary study, and to direct against their proper objects of condemnation, with all virtuous exercise of reflection.

The lines sent with Falconer's "Shipwreck" to a lady are common-place, but pleasing; while all that follow, of
this

this mood or measure, must be remanded to our vituperative division.

We are almost inclined to revoke our *censure* of Mr. Coleridge for not classing his compositions better; when we see him affixing the designation of '*Meditative Poems*' to a large portion of his work. This proves him not to be so wholly ignorant of the arts of *puffing* as we had imagined; and we give him our praise accordingly. However we may settle this point, we cannot but agree with him in his feelings of rapture and of devotion, when he sees the sun rise on Mont Blanc:

'Awake my soul! not only passive praise
Thou owest! not alone these swelling tears,
Mute thanks and secret extacy! Awake,
Voice of sweet song! Awake, my heart, awake!
Green vales and icy cliffs, all join my hymn.

'Thou first and chief, sole sovran of the vale!
O struggling with the darkness all the night,
And visited all night by troops of stars,
Or when they climb the sky, or when they sink:
Companion of the Morning-Star at dawn,
Thyself Earth's ROSY-STAR, and of the dawn
Co-herald! wake, O wake, and utter praise!
Who sank thy sunless pillows deep in Earth?
Who fill'd thy countenance with rosy light?
Who made thee parent of perpetual streams?

'And you, ye five wild torrents fiercely glad!
Who call'd you forth from night and utter death,
From dark and icy caverns call'd you forth,
Down those precipitous, black, jagged rocks,
For ever shattered, and the same for ever?
Who gave you your invulnerable life,
Your strength, your speed, your fury, and your joy,
Unceasing thunder and eternal foam?
And who commanded (and the silence came),
Here let the billows stiffen, and have rest?

'Ye ice-falls! ye that from the mountain's brow
Adown enormous ravines slope amain —
Torrents, methinks, that heard a mighty voice,
And stopp'd at once amid their maddest plunge!
Motionless torrents! silent cataracts!
Who made you glorious as the gates of Heaven
Beneath the keen full moon? Who bade the sun
Cloath you with rainbows? Who, with living flowers
Of loveliest hue, spread garlands at your feet? —
God! let the torrents, like a shout of nations
Answer! and let the ice-plains echo, God!

God!

God! sing ye meadow-streams with gladsome voice!
 Ye pine-groves, with your soft and soul-like sounds!
 And they too have a voice, yon piles of snow,
 And in their perilous fall shall thunder, God!

‘ Ye livery flowers that skirt th’ eternal frost!
 Ye wild goats sporting round the eagle’s nest!
 Ye eagles, play-mates of the mountain-storm!
 Ye lightnings, the dread arrows of the clouds!
 Ye signs and wonders of the element!
 Utter forth God, and fill the hills with praise!

‘ Once more, hoar mount! with thy sky-pointing peaks,
 Oft from whose feet, the avalanche, unheard,
 Shoots downward, glittering thro’ the pure serene,
 Into the depth of clouds that veil thy breast. —
 Thou too again, stupendous mountain! thou
 That as I raise my head, awhile bow’d low
 In adoration, upward from thy base
 Slow-travelling with dim eyes suffused with tears,
 Solemnly seemest, like a vapoury cloud,
 To rise before me. — Rise, O ever rise,
 Rise like a cloud of incense, from the earth!
 Thou kingly spirit thron’d among the hills,
 Thou dread ambassador from Earth to Heaven,
 Great hierarch! tell thou the silent sky,
 And tell the stars, and tell yon rising sun,
 Earth, with her thousand voices, praises God.’

We do not think that we have much descriptive or devotional blank verse, in our language, which is better than this.

Several of the *Copies of Verses* that follow are, in our opinion, more adapted to the silence and the privacy of domestic enjoyment, than to glaring and repulsive publication. The author’s sympathies with his family are surely too sacred for general notice. These things should be shewn “through a glass darkly;” and they should be known to be real, only by the vivid image which they present through the interposed medium of fiction.

The Verses to the Rev. George Coleridge are delightful, and are truly a brother’s tribute. If they must yield, as all things must, to the enchanting “Traveller” of Goldsmith, even in the just expression of fraternal affection, still they are very beautiful; and, did not our limits forbid their entire insertion here, as absolutely as our feeling of their great merit precludes the idea of mutilating them by partial quotation, we would enable our readers to share the pleasure which we have received from the perusal of them.

REV. JAN. 1819.

D

‘ This

'This Lime-tree Bower my Prison,' or a poem in which the author records his feelings when left at home from illness, while his friends were wandering about the beautiful country in his neighbourhood, is very pretty and pleasing; especially in the following passage:

'Yes! they wander on
In gladness all; but thou, methinks, most glad,
My gentle-hearted Charles! for thou hast pin'd
And hunger'd after Nature, many a year,
In the great city pent, winning thy way
With sad yet patient soul, through evil and pain
And strange calamity! Ah! slowly sink
Behind the western ridge, thou glorious Sun!
Shine in the slant beams of the sinking orb,
Ye purple heath-flowers! richlier burn, ye clouds!
Live in the yellow light, ye distant groves!
And kindle, thou blue ocean! So, my friend,
Struck with deep joy may stand, as I have stood,
Silent with swimming sense,' &c.

The cold metaphysical abstractions which ensue, clothed as they are in mock energy and in pretended rage, contribute much towards the destruction of all effect from the beautiful and feeling extract above.

We must here pause in our praises, although above a hundred pages of the work are yet unexamined: but these we shall leave untouched, either by the sweet or the bitter end of our wand of criticism; save, indeed, a few drops from the latter. We must now retrace our steps; and, with painful but necessary severity, hold up the mirror to the deformities of this ingenious author's theory of poetical expression. He is not a poet who sins by chance: his is the guilt of erroneous literary principle, and it should be pursued with proportionate awards of reprobation. Having waived our right to criticise his preliminary childish effusions, come we then to particular passages in the remaining portion of his work which are necessarily submitted to our censure. We speak not of the *general nonsense* of the 'Ancient Mariner,' but of its specific offences:

'Nor dim, nor red, LIKE GOD'S OWN HEAD,
The glorious sun uprist.'

How came the author to *re-publish this*? Pious as he undoubtedly is, we think that we discover a *methodistical sort* of freedom about him,

'A freedom with the Unutterable Name.'

'And

' And every tongue, through utter drought,
Was wither'd at the root;
We could not speak, *no more than if*
We had been chok'd with soot.

Will not a due reflection at length teach Mr. Coleridge, that such passages as the above, whether they are to be found in Mr. Wordsworth's poems or in his own, belong to the *Comic Familiar*, and not to the *Simple Narrative*?

' The lightning fell *with never a jag.*

This is merely vulgar.

' But in a minute she 'gan stir
With a short uneasy motion,
Backwards and forwards half her length,
With a short uneasy motion.

Repetition, they say, is the "soul of ballad-writing:" but surely it should not be the *body* too; and there is something too *substantial* in this sort of frequent re-appearance of the same solid creature, '*with a short uneasy motion.*'

' His rosy face besoiled with unwiped tears.'

This is a nasty infant: not an infant adapted to poetic admiration.

' *My God!* it is a melancholy thing —'

— — — — —
—— '*Oh my God!*

' It is indeed a melancholy thing.'

That a thousand verses like this might be spun in a morning, by any one gifted with sufficient *dullness and irreverence* for the task, is most manifest.

The rhapsody which follows, about the universal unredeemed wickedness of the world, is "most musical, most melancholy;" — and these words bring us to a curious note of the author, declaring that no charge could be more painful to him than that 'of having alluded with levity to a line in Milton;' — 'except, *perhaps*, that of having *ridiculed his Bible.*' We have seldom seen a more grotesque instance of hyperbolic exaggeration, than that which is contained in this assertion.

On certain occasions, Mr. C. has displayed considerable humour: but it fails him in the poem of the '*Mad Ox*;' and in that of '*Parliamentary Oscillators*,' a laborious and unhappy title, for the *jeu d'esprit* to which it is prefixed.

' Fire, Famine, and Slaughter,' most of our political readers will remember. The severity of the satire is one thing; the merit of the poetry is another; and undoubtedly

many will dispute the justice of the first, but none, we think, can with candour deny the energy of the last. The 'Apologetic Preface,' as it is quaintly called, which the author has placed before the poem, was surely unnecessary: since nothing but the rankest bigotry, or the most stupid perversion, could misinterpret the feelings of the writer of a political lampoon on that obnoxious minister, who so long wielded and exhausted the strength and the resources of Great Britain, in enterprises which made her friends alternately shiver with alarm and with poverty, and which elated the hopes and aggrandized the dominion of her enemies.

Never was writer more digressive than the present. He leaps from Mr. Pitt upon Jeremy Taylor; and the French Revolution fixes him in admiration of Milton. The last transition, indeed, is by much the most natural of the two. We admire, however, his comparison and contrast of the royalist and the republican of the age of Charles the First.

'Slush! my heedless feet from under,' &c. &c.

There is no end to these imitative sounds. We could startle Mr. Coleridge with a volley of them, sanctioned by his own example. Does he remember the chorus of *Hisses* which followed Gil Blas' friend poor Melchior Zapator, as he walked from the spring where he had been soaking his crusts? Does he remember *all* the catcalls of Madrid?

'A curious picture, with a master's haste
Sketch'd on a strip of pinky-silver skin,
Peel'd from the birchen bark!'

This is what we would call the *Natural Affectation*: — by which we do not mean the *affectation of a natural*, but the affectation of describing natural objects *as they are, exactly*; and without any addition of the *beau idéal* of art. Perhaps many happier instances than the above, of this radical defect in the poetry of Mr. Coleridge and of all his school, might be selected. They all abound in this affectation, this sort of minute Dutch painting; and again in another species of the same variety, the hearty, honest, homespun, "hail fellow-well-met," style —

"*Quæ mera libertas dici vult, veraque virtus.*"

Speaking of the reasons which made him regret the illness of a beautiful and amiable woman, the author says:

'Besides what vexed us worse, we knew,
They have no need of such as you
In the place where you were going:
This world has angels all too few,
And Heaven is overflowing.'

This

This is in Little's youngest style of levity.

"I love my love, and my love loves me."

"I slit the sheet," &c. &c.:

but the only *idea* in this song is as old as the Pastor Fido; and, no doubt, older still.

The '*Happy Husband*,' instead of being *happy*, is mystical and unimpressive. So also are the verses on a most interesting occasion, the author's *approach* to his home, when he has heard of a child being born to him. Even here he is *Platonic, Pythagoric*, we had almost said, *Paregoric*. He administers, indeed, a very strong and very repulsive dose to our natural feelings: but he redeems his fault in the simple and beautiful lines which follow, on the first sight of his child.

The lines to a *Gentleman*, who had recited a poem about the '*growth of an individual mind*,' we conclude are verses addressed to Mr. Wordsworth, on some nonsensical piece of mysticism, spouted forth by that solemn but flimsy author. Why will these three lake-poets, Messrs. Southey, Wordsworth, and Coleridge, and their admirers, so often remind us of the story of the men who were acquainted with the three clever sisters, and each thought that the other knew the one who was really so famous for her cleverness?

The notion of taking a child out into an orchard at night, to look at the moon, when it was frightened by that '*strange thing, an infant's dream*,' is original enough; unless, indeed, it was suggested by the practice of some medical men in fevers, who expose the patient to a cold air-bath.

'She smil'd, and smil'd, and pass'd it off;

E'er from the door she stept;

But all agree *it would have been*

Much better had she wept.'

Again the farcical, — meant to be pathetic.

'Twas such a foggy time, as makes

Old sextons, Sir! like me,

Rest on their spades to cough; the spring

Was late uncommonly.'

We must here leave this *rural author* for the present: but not without bestowing praise on him which we are sure will be very welcome. He speaks, then, like a sexton, most naturally; and, had he stripped his sexton of as many waist-coats as his brother grave-digger, when represented by poor

Suett, was wont to pull off in Hamlet, he might have deserved the full praise of the Roman critic,

"*Quinetiam agrestes satyros nudavit; et asper
Incolumi gravitate jocum tentavit.*" —

We shall shortly revisit Mr. C. in his biography of himself.

ART. IV. *Odin, a Poem*; in Eight Books and Two Parts. By the Right Hon. Sir W. Drummond, Author of a Translation of Persius, *Academical Questions**, &c. Part I. 4to. pp. 165. 18s. Boards. Law and Co., &c.

SIR WILLIAM DRUMMOND is honourably known in the literary world by his *Academical Questions*, which display courage of intellect, and by various academic disquisitions, not yet collected we believe, which manifest a recondite erudition. To his praise-worthy prose-trophies, he seems ambitious of super-adding poetic wreaths; and the translator of Persius now comes forwards once more into the arena of the Muses. Ambitious of the highest honours of the art, he selects epic composition for his career; blank verse of ten syllables is the metre adopted; and Odin, the prophet of the north, is the hero of the tale. Four books only of the intended epopea are here laid before the public; so that it is difficult to appreciate the merit of the fable, or plot, which can but imperfectly be inferred. Yet one objection to it strikes us as considerable; viz. that the scene of event is laid at a period long anterior to the existence of Odin. Mallet, a superficial antiquary, may have fancied that Odin fled from Pontus, and was once the ally of Mithridates; and Gibbon may have been pleased with the theory; but subsequent investigations have ascertained that this hypothesis is indefensible, which reposes chiefly on the ignorant supposition that *Asa*, a title of Odin, signifies an Asiatic. The Icelandic word *Asa* represents the Latin *divus*, and signifies *deceased* in the sense of *sainted*; it is applied to all the gods, as well as Odin, and is certainly not translateable by the word Asian. If Odin had flourished before Tacitus, mention must have occurred of him in the essay on the Manners of the Germans. Probably he flourished about the time of Constantine. When Charlemagne imposed on the followers of Wittikind the Christian rite of baptism, the Saxons were compelled to re-

* For our accounts of these works, see the *General Index* to the New Series of the M. R., recently published.

nounce their heathenism in these words: "I forsake the Devil, and Thor, and Wodan, and the Saxon Odin, and all their unhallowed comrades." It was therefore within the tradition if not within the record of Charlemagne's time, that Odin was a Saxon, and a different person from *All-father* Wodan, and indeed the progenitor of many chieftains whose entire pedigrees remain: in the pedigree of Hengist, for instance, Odin is made great-grandfather to Hengist's grandfather, which accords with every probability and with every testimony.

Let us, however, suppose this anachronism of fable to be pardonable: we have then some farther doubts to advance respecting the orthodoxy of Sir William Drummond's mythology. At p. xv. it is here asserted that Balder was certainly a type of the Sun. Percy had already committed this error in a note (p. 73.) of the second volume of his *Northern Antiquities*: but the weightier authority of Græter (*Bragur*, Vol. III. p. 39.) decidedly rejects this baseless supposition, which originates in confounding the Celtic god Belinus with the Gothic god Balder. The Sun is a female in Gothic mythology, who, to use the words of the Edda,

"Rides the road her mother rode."

To place Balder on the back of Skinfax, says Græter, is like placing Adonis in the chariot of the Sun. — Again, at p. xv., *Nifle-heim* is translated *evil-home* instead of *home of fogs*; and Niord, who is rather the Æolus, is called the Neptune, of the north: but Æger is the Gothic god of the sea, and Niord of the wind.

We will now proceed to the poem itself. Pharnaces, a son of Mithridates, spurning the thralldom of the Roman yoke, and followed by a band of warriors, has sought the northern regions of Europe, in order to found an empire there and be still a king. This prince, originally attached to the Persian religion, thus addresses his gods:

"Behold me now, relentless Ahriman,
Thou God of vengeance, stricken in thy wrath!
The Roman despot has usurp'd my throne;
He holds my brethren in ignoble chains;
He stabs my fame — lays on my guiltless head
My murder'd father's blood; and ruthless drives,
From land to land, the branded parricide.
Gods! Shall my name descend from sire to son
Thus blacken'd and blasphemed? Is truth no more?
Sleeps righteous Ormusd on his radiant throne
Celestial? Ceases Mithras now to guide.

The sun through heaven, in his glorious march ?
 Oh, what a change is this ! and how unlike
 Are these bleak vallies to the blooming fields
 Of fair Amasia ! Yet amid these rocks
 I dwell by choice. He, who has worn a crown,
 When less than king, is less than other men —
 A fallen star extinguished, leaving blank
 Its place in heaven. Here in Cesar's spite
 I grasp a sceptre still. Let the rude North
 With all his tempests bellow round my head ;
 I reckon not, while I call this frozen world
 My kingdom."

In reply to this prayer, a spectre arises, who announces himself as the genius of the river Gotha, and thus laments the decay of piety in the north :

" " No shouts of war are heard. No stranger's blood
 Is drunk from brimming skulls in Dalberg's halls.
 Long nights of revelry are known no more,
 The feasts of heroes, or the songs of Scalds.
 The North is now forsaken by its gods.
 Deserted are the domes of Glitterheim.
 Mute is the voice of Bragi ; th' idle winds
 Play wildly with the strings of his loved lyre,
 Harmonious now no longer. Thor has fled
 With Balder, fairest of the sons of light.
 All wither'd are the roses cull'd by Love,
 Around the bed where beauteous Freia lay ;
 And vacant is the throne, where Odin sat.
 Thy soul, O mortal, soars above thy state !
 Then give it wing, and let it win the skies."

Pharnaces expresses his willingness to adopt the religion of the genius of the place, and to follow the spectre whithersoever it may lead. The genius answers :

— " " The Printes of the deep,
 Who strive with Heaven for this northern world —
 Loke, God of terrors — Hela, ruthless Queen —
 The black-wing'd Genii sprung from ancient Night —
 The fiend of fire, fierce Surtur, sable King —
 The Sorceress of Jarnvid — fed with blood,
 Ferocious Fenris — Mignard, snake-like God —
 Ymir, and Nor, and all their giant brood —
 Await thy coming in the gloomy shades
 Of Nifle-heim — for in thy cause are leagued
 The powers of darkness, and they shall prevail."

" With pride elated then the King replied,
 " I ask not what is evil, or what good ;
 Who dwell in darkness, or who love the light."

I ask

I ask for vengeance, and thy gods thou say'st,
Protect Pharnaces, and will crush his foes.
Be they of Heav'n or Hell those gods I serve."

In the second book, Pharnaces returns to the camp, which he finds in mutiny. He proposes to the discontented chieftains to accompany him into an oracular cavern, where the will of the gods could be learnt: they demur: he descends; and meanwhile the soldiers rise on these chiefs, and butcher them.

A remarkable though surely a misplaced passage of this book is the following address to Superstition; which forms no part of the action or dialogue of the poem, but is a mere ejaculation of the poet:

O Superstition! souring the sweet blood
Of gentle nature in her children's veins,
How long shalt thou destroy, 'twixt man and man,
The kindest sympathies. Ev'n with our race
Coëval, thou hast visited mankind
With sore afflictions from the birth of time.
Old Egypt writhed, within thine iron gripe
Compress'd, as she bow'd down before her Gods,
Inanimate, or living, and adored
Ten thousand idols, symbols of the host
Celestial. Syria knew thee to her woe,
When purple to the sea her fountains ran
Ensanguined; and her priests, thy ministers,
At Baal's, or at Moloch's horrid shrine,
Drench'd Judah's valleys with her people's blood.
O'er Europe thou didst rule destroying fiend!
And in thy red right hand the reeking axe,
Heated with human blood, had never cool'd,
But that Philosophy, with Liberty,
Her sister, from the skies to save the world
Descended. Baffled, thou art mighty still;
And though grown old thou stalkest gaunt and grim,
The wither'd phantom of thy former self;
Yet abject nations still confess thy sway,
For still Hispania on her vine-clad shores,
And soft Italia in her orange-groves,
Europa's fairest daughters, own thy power,
Crouch at thy feet, and bow beneath thy yoke!

Book III. Here the poet again peeps through his mask, and commences in his own person a philosophic argument about annihilation, which we beg leave to avoid. At length, however, he returns to Pharnaces; who descends into the Gothic hell; awaking for his guide a Vola, or prophetess, who sleeps at the entrance, and serves as a Sibyl to the new Æneas. The description of the adjuration recalls Gray's Descent of Odin:

Odin : but that of the infernal regions is more original. We quote a fragment of it :

‘ Hard by another structure rose immense,
The palace of the gods of Jutenheim —
A mountain of pure ice, diaphanous,
By Jot and Rugner, giants of the clime,
Hewn into towers, and spires, and porticos,
Chambers, and halls, and long-drawn galleries,
Adorn'd within with cornice and with frieze,
Pellucid crystals, frost-encrusted snows,
Fair pillars chissell'd from the wave congeal'd,
Rime-silver'd walls, and roofs of fretted ice.
Here on his snow-built throne fell Ymir sat
The gloomy monarch of this glacial Hell ;
While round him throng'd the demons of the storm,
Offspring of Night and Chaos, ancient Nor —
The grim Rim-tussi Winter's sullen sons —
And rugged Bor, the King of freezing blasts.
Beside this fabric, leafless, drear, and dark,
An iron forest stood, thence Jarnvid call'd,
Where ranged at large those monsters hurl'd from Heav'n —
Nig-hoder, famish'd dragon — Loke's black steed,
Eight-hoof'd Chimæra, Gledner named in Hell —
Fierce Fenris, wolf-like fiend, that hates the Sun —
The witch his mother, hideous hag, who rides
The sick man's dream of horror — that gaunt hound,
The guard of Hela — and the Vampire King,
Dire Managarmer, fear'd by dying men.’

In the fourth book, some natives of Denmark prepare to expel the Asiatic invaders, and a battle begins between them and the troops of Pharnaces : but this prince, having completed his infernal expedition, and thus conciliated the gods and the priesthood, comes forth in a car drawn by white horses to separate the combatants. At the instigation of the Scalds, and apparently in consequence of some supernatural assistance, he is suddenly recognized by both armies as a new incarnation of Odin, and the common god of them all. The Scalds then sing the following triumphal song, with which this portion of the poem concludes :

‘ Odin, our God,
Has left Valhalla, and the bowers of bliss ;
He comes to dwell among us as our King.
Lift ye the voice, ye brothers of the song !
Sound ye the lyre, ye sons of harmony !
Who is like Odin ? King and God is he.
The thunder roars beneath his burning wheels,
When through the sky he drives his flaming car,
And with his fiery trident smites in ire

• The

The groaning clouds. The earth is desolate,
 And universal nature mourns. But see,
 He lays aside his terrors, and once more
 Shows to the grateful world his front serene !
 Rejoice, ye men of Swedeland and of Dan !
 Rejoice, ye children of the morning star,
 Ye men of Asia ! Odin is our God.
 His dazzling banner is a flame of fire ;
 His voice is like the trumpet's ; he is clothed
 With vestments wrought in Asgard ; for a coat
 He has put on the glory of the Sun.
 The storm rush'd down from Skara's hills ; the wind
 Blew loud in Edad's woods ; the cloud was dark
 O'er Dalia's valley ; and the thunder roar'd
 Among Trolhetta's rocks. Since Odin spake,
 The Sun shines bright on Skara's hills ; the air
 Is calm in Edad's woods ; in Dalia's vale
 The day is clear ; and mid Trolhetta's rocks
 Soft Echo answers to the shepherd's flute.
 See, the glad Earth reviving smiles again ;
 Again she crowns her head with new blown flowers ;
 And decks her bosom with the sweets of Spring.
 The warrior now shall lay aside his sword ;
 The feast, the revel, shall amuse his hours.
 The minstrel, fearless of the soldier's steel,
 Shall tune his harp to merry melodies.
 Star of the North, thou shalt for ever shine
 The glory of our sky ! Odin our God
 Has quitted Asgard, and its golden domes,
 To dwell among us. On the mountain's brow
 His car descended, and we knew our King —
 We knew him by the banner of the gods,
 That like a meteor flamed among the clouds ;
 And by the brilliant blazon on his shield,
 That heralded in fire his rank divine.
 Ye sons of Dalia haste, prepare the feast !
 To Dalberg's ancient towers lead on the way ;
 While we, the Scalds of Norway, skill'd in song,
 To pipe, to tabor, and sweet dulcimer,
 Exalt in Odin's praise the choral lay.'

These specimens will enable the reader to judge of the spirit and character of the poetry ; and he will probably ascribe to the speeches, and to the dialogue, more merit than to the narrative or descriptive passages. The writer seems to have been formed rather by the perusal of dramatic than of epic excellence. His versification has a Miltonic character, and imitates even the pedantic features of Milton's style ; it is vigorous and thoughtful, pregnant with recondite allusion, and philosophic reflection : but it is more frequently argu-
 mentative

mentative than passionate, and has rather an oratoric than a poetic cast. Perhaps, too, Pharnaces is a sort of being not well adapted for human sympathy; the pursuit of divinity is more a singular than an attaching purpose; personages with every-day virtues and vices, — the rash, the amorous, and the irascible, — such are the poetic heroes who most engage our participation in their fate.

Among the British versifiers who have availed themselves of the Gothic mythology for the decoration of their compositions, Gray and Sayers have been most successful in allying a classical grace and taste with these wild, rude, and fanciful legends: but Mr. Herbert has indisputably the merit of a more strictly learned adherence to the native fables of the north. Sir W. Drummond should not disdain to be familiar with the works of his colleagues. The Descent of Freia is probably the most beautiful masque in our language, yet it has escaped his notice or citation. No where else have the Scandinavian divinities so admirably spoken the liquid language of the skies; and even Ewald's Death of Balder, if superior for mythological exactness, exhibits no rival lyrical beauties. We exhort Sir William to study it as a model of versification; and, in his future cantos, to indulge in a similar variety of measure. Long poems require versatility of metre: it was a mistake of the older poets to go on as they began; and the choral lay of the Scalds would more agreeably have terminated this section of the epopea before us, if it had been couched in some regular or irregular lyric metre.

ART. V. *Communications to the Board of Agriculture, Vols. VI. and VII.*

[Article concluded from p. 162. Review for October last.]

WE resume our report of the remaining papers in Vol. VII. of these interesting communications; and first in order we come to Mr. Farey's *Observations on peeling Oak-Timber*, which will be read with advantage: they are accompanied by an engraving of the tools used on the Duke of Bedford's estate. — Colonel Beatson, while governor of St. Helena, a sterile rock very dependent on foreign imports for the common necessities of life, laudably gave the utmost encouragement to agriculture for the purpose of augmenting the internal resources of the island; and we have here presented to us the detail of some experiments conducted by himself on the *Culture of Potatoes and Mangel Wurzel*. The most striking part of this account is the evidence exhibited of the

wondrous

wondrous efficacy of *Guana*, the dung of sea-fowls, employed as manure. It is used very largely in South America, and furnishes the loading of an immense number of vessels that are constantly employed in bringing it from small islands to the main land. The result of Colonel Beatson's experiments makes 35 bushels of the *Guana* equivalent to 70 loads of good rotten dung! Its effects as a top-dressing on grass-lands are thus strikingly exemplified :

‘ On the 29th of July, 1808, I marked out a space, on the lawn in front of Plantation House, which measured one rod in breadth, and twelve rods in length. This was divided into twelve equal parts, or square rods, and numbered progressively from 1 to 12. The *guana* was reduced to a powder, and sifted; and upon number 1. a quart of this powder was evenly strewed by the hand; this is at the rate of five Winchester bushels per acre; because 160 square rods, or an acre, would have required that number of quarts, or exactly five bushels. In the same manner number 2. had two quarts, number 3. three quarts, and so on to number 12. which had twelve quarts, or at the rate of 60 bushels per acre.

‘ From the 29th of July there were, daily, drizzling rains until the 5th of August, when the effect of this invaluable manure began to appear. On the following day the whole extent of the 12 rods became highly verdant, and exhibited such a contrast to the unmanured part of the lawn, that it had the appearance of having been newly turfed with a finer kind of soil. The effect gradually increased; and in the first week of October, that is, in little more than two months, the higher numbers from 6 to 12, (having from 30 to 60 bushels per acre,) excited the surprize of every person who saw them, being covered with the most exuberant grass that can be imagined, and having more the resemblance of a crop of young wheat, very thickly sown, than of any grass I ever beheld.

‘ This is the more remarkable, as at that time the copious rains which fell in August and the spring-season had made no visible effect on the adjoining part of the lawn.’

Colonel B. suggests that this invaluable manure may probably be found in great abundance among the rocks and islands on the coast of Scotland.

Ten years ago, the Duke of Atholl transmitted to the Commissioners of Naval Revision some *Observations on Larch*; they are inserted here, and constitute a very interesting communication. The larch was introduced into Scotland in the year 1738 by a Highland gentleman, Mr. Menzies, who brought a few small plants from London: some of which were standing in the year 1807, and the largest then measured 13 feet in circumference. His Grace has been in the constant habit, for more than thirty years, of using larch of various ages for different purposes; and he positively

positively affirms that the thinnings of his plantations, employed for paling, rails, and hurdles, 'are more durable than oak copse-wood of twenty-four years' growth.' He builds all his ferry-boats and fishing-vessels of larch; and, after a lapse of years, they have proved sound when the ribs, which were made of oak, have become decayed. In mill-axles, also, larch has been substituted for oak with the best effect; and, in cutting up an old decayed mill-wheel, those parts of the water-cogs which had been repaired with it twenty years before were discovered to be as sound and as fresh as at first. — The value of larch is not to be estimated merely by its intrinsic qualities, but also by its aptitude to soils and situations where few other trees can live. On the very summit of the lower range of the Grampian hills, from a thousand to twelve hundred feet above the level of the sea, on a barren soil composed of mountain-schist, slate, and iron-stone, and where even the Scotch fir cannot rear its head, the larch grows luxuriantly; 'and in considerable tracts,' says the Duke, 'where fragments of shivered rocks are strewed so thick that vegetation scarcely meets the eye, the larch puts out as strong and vigorous shoots as are to be found in the valleys below, and in the most sheltered situations.' The larch is an alpine tree, *and it will not thrive in wet situations*: but its comparative value is exceedingly greater than the Scotch fir when it finds a congenial soil. The Duke sold a larch that was fifty years old for twelve guineas, while a fir of the same age and in the same situation was not worth more than fifteen shillings. In addition to the other valuable properties of this tree, Mr. White has communicated the result of some experiments, which induce him to believe that the *bark of the larch* may be used for *tanning* with as much advantage as that of the oak itself.

Mr. Hove, a native of Poland, has presented a paper *on the best Mode of planting Trees*, and on miscellaneous subjects connected with rural affairs. His account of the Honey which is so extensively cultivated in Poland is very curious. This production is divided into three sorts, Lipiec, Leszny, and Stepowey praszynmird. The first is gathered by the bees from a species of lime peculiar to the forests of Lithuania. This honey is as white as milk; and, from the superiority of its flavour, it is held in higher estimation on the continent than any other, a pound weight selling sometimes for two ducats on the spot. The peasants about Kowno have no regular bee-hives, but go into the forests which belong to their masters, and, even without leave, make a longitudinal hollow aperture into the trunk or branches of the lime-trees, about

about three feet in length, one in breadth, and one in depth; here they deposit their bees, leaving them food, but paying very little attention to them till late in the autumn: when, cutting out the honey, but sparing them a certain quantity for maintenance, they secure the aperture with clay and straw against the inclemency of the approaching winter. These tenements, with their inhabitants and their honey, become the indisputable property of the peasant who has thus appropriated them; he may sell and transfer them in any way that he pleases, and except by the Bear he rarely finds any depredation committed on them: indeed, the laws of Poland are particularly severe against any robbery of these apiaries. — In the following spring, the proprietor goes again to the forest, examines the state of his bees, and, if their stock of food be low, deposits a quantity which he judges may be sufficient to maintain them till the spring-blossoms appear. If his bees have not decreased by mortality, he makes other apertures in the trunk or branches of the tree, in order that they may find an asylum ready if they should swarm in his absence. In the autumn, he visits them again, carries the June and July work away with him, which is the *Lipiec*, (the Polish name of the month of June, derived from the flowering of the lime,) and leaves only that part for the food of his bees which was gathered by them before and after the flowering. The mead from this honey is of such fine flavour that it sells at Kowno, Grodno, and Vilna, at the rate of eight pounds sterling per dozen! — Surely it would be worth while to introduce this species of lime-tree into England.

Leszny, the next class of honey, is very inferior to *Lipiec*, and comes from the pine-forests; the inhabitants pierce the trees in a similar manner, and pay similar attention to the security and maintenance of their bees: but the wax is of an inferior quality, and so is the mead.

The third class is *Stepowey*, or honey from the plains, where an abundance of perennial plants and very little wood occur. The Ukraine produces the best honey and the best wax. Mr. Hove says that the peasants of that province pay great attention to this branch of economy, which is their only resource for defraying the taxes levied in Russia. The produce of bees is considered as equal to ready money; while wheat and other corn fluctuate much in price, and are sometimes of so little value that the peasants do not deem it worth while to gather them in. *This Mr. Hove asserts to have happened in the Ukraine four times in twelve years.* — The demand for wax and honey is so general and uniform all over Europe, and even Turkey, that some of the peasants have four or five hundred

hundred *Ule* or logs of birch-wood (which the bees prefer) in their gardens, and are called *Pasieka* or bee-hives. These logs are about six feet high, and hollowed in the middle for about five feet; laminæ of thin boards are nailed before the aperture; and a small hole is left in the middle of one of them for the entrance of the bees. In favourable seasons, these apertures are full before August, and the produce is removed to give room for the bees to continue their work. The bee-gardens are, of course, made in the vicinity of those plains in which the perennial plants abound: they are of circular form, about 150 yards in diameter, well defended by reed and brush-wood, &c. against the inclemencies of weather; and the hives themselves are placed under cover, and protected with straw. The plants which the bees prefer are *Thymus serpyllum*, *Hyssopus officinalis*, *Cerinthe maculata*, and *Polygonum fagopyrum*. — For the process of brewing mead, we must refer to Mr. Hove's paper; not omitting to state, however, that the gout is said to be unknown where it is used as a common beverage.

Mr. Rennie furnishes a paper on *Weeding or Cleaning Land*; in which he treats of the various perennial and annual weeds that commonly occur in this country; and, by illustrating their nature, explains the best mode of removing them. Mr. R. seems to have paid much attention to this subject, and offers many hints worthy of notice.

Sir C. Burrell has a short paper on *the Culture of Potatoes*, with which he appears to have fed his working oxen, and afterward to have fattened them very advantageously. — Mr. Ellis has next given the result of some experiments on *Feeding Cattle with a Proportion of Sugar*. Three pounds and a half of sugar, mixed with a peck (about 10 lbs.) of barley-meal, will fatten pigs quicker than two pecks of barley-meal alone. Sugar, diluted and mixed with chaff, answers exceedingly well for ewes during the lambing season; and Mr. Ellis gave it to horses likewise, and fattened several oxen with it. It is to be observed that sugar is not recommended as an entire substitute either for turnips or hay, but it is employed in conjunction with them both; and consequently its relative efficacy in fattening is not easily ascertainable. Some years ago, at the request of the West-India planters, government allowed a limited quantity of sugar to be delivered free of duty for agricultural experiments; annexing, for the security of the revenue, the condition of its being previously contaminated by the mixture of small quantities of quassia and assafetida: by which process it is rendered inapplicable to the ordinary modes of consumption, while it remains uninjured as food for cattle.

cattle. In all cases, Lord Somerville says, it should be diluted to a thin syrup; mixed with meal when used for pigs, and with chaff when used for bullocks, sheep, or horses. The assafoetida, he asserts, does not in the slightest degree affect the flavour of the meat; not even of pork, which is known to be altogether spoilt by oil-cake.

In a statement of *the comparative Merits of Horses and Oxen in the Business of a Farm*, Mr. Whitworth gives a decided preference to the latter.

Mr. Chambers reports the utility of a *Hay-rick* which he has constructed with channels traversing its foundation, and air-chimneys communicating with them. He claims no merit for it as an invention, but as an improvement; and he states its advantages to be that the hay may be carried at least one day earlier, by being fully guarded against the danger of overheating; that there is thus a saving of one day's labour; and that the weight is greater, because, if the hay be longer in making than necessity requires, so much is the loss of weight by evaporation. A ground-plan of the rick is given.

Mr. Skurray has a paper on *the Culture of the real Summer-Wheat*; which, from his account, is possessed of many valuable qualities. A very justifiable caution has been diffused against the use of what are called *Spring wheats* from the season when they are deposited in the ground. Certainly, the samples of spring-wheat, which it has fallen to us personally to examine, have been almost without exception thin, shrivelled, light, coarse, and in every respect of very inferior quality. Rather than sow them, the writer of this article drilled eighteen acres with the common white *egg-shelled* wheat in the month of February 1817. The produce was four quarters per acre, harvested at the same time with the winter-wheats: but the sample was certainly much inferior to them; the kernels, though plump and firm, being very small. The wheat ripened too fast: its growth was rapid; and it had no sooner shot into the ear than it began to mature before it attained its natural size. The sample, however, was better than that of the spring-wheats usually offered. Concerning the 'real' summer-wheat, Mr. Skurray asserts that 'it is wholly exempt from mildew in those seasons when common wheat is completely destroyed by it;' that it is the best of all corn as a nurse to clovers, &c.; that it requires no extraordinary tillage or manure; that it produces a large increase, and is much approved by millers; and that it may be sown with success as late as in the beginning of May. If it actually possesses the excellent qualities here ascribed to it, Mr. Skurray would do well to transmit a quantity of it to

some respectable house in London, whence farmers in distant parts of the country might obtain a few bushels, *authenticated to be genuine*: for much of the prejudice against spring-wheats may possibly have resulted from the use of spurious sorts.

Lord Sheffield's Reports on the Trade in Wool and Woollens, addressed to the Annual Wool Meeting at Lewes in the years 1809, 1810, 1811, and 1812, constitute an article pregnant with very curious and interesting information. They may now be quoted as historical documents respecting the commercial situation of Great Britain at those periods in which we were at war with France, when the whole continent of Europe was shut against us, and America also was in hostility. The paper, however, involves some questionable points of political economy: namely, on affording protecting prices to the wool-grower and to the agriculturist, by means of duties on the importation of foreign wools and foreign corn: thus supporting a particular class of society at the expence of the whole. At the close of so long an article, we dare not venture on the discussion of this question; which may the less be regretted, however, as the arguments on both sides, in consequence of the earnestness and frequency with which they have been urged in a variety of modern publications, are probably familiar to most of our readers. His Lordship is a strenuous advocate for the policy, or more correctly speaking for the necessity, of thus playing off one portion of society against another: but this necessity, if it really does exist, has been created by the exorbitant increase of taxation; which makes it impossible that the people of England on whom it is imposed, and who are likewise afflicted with a dreadful burden of poor-rates and tythe, should be able to bring to market a raw material on the same low terms with the people of other countries, who are exempt from tythes and poor-rates, and on whom taxation has laid only its little finger.

Lord Thanet and Mr. Greg, both eminent agriculturists from the school of Holkham, have communicated to the Board their conviction from repeated experiment that *Lime*, sown by hand, or distributed by a machine, is an *infallible protection to the infant-Turnip against the ravages of the Fly*. It should be applied as soon as the turnips come up, and in the same daily rotation in which they were sown; and the lime should be slacked immediately before it is used, unless the atmosphere be sufficiently moist to render that operation unnecessary.

The last paper in this volume is an account of the drainage and improvement of *Chat Moss*, by Mr. Roscoe. This tract
of

of land lies between Manchester and Warrington: the whole length of the moss being about six miles, and its greatest breadth about three. Although it appears that a part of this extensive moss was once imparked, oak-palings having been found when cutting the drains in an almost regular series, yet the greater portion of it had been uncultivated for ages, and surcharged with stagnant water. It lies thirty feet above the level of the Irwell, from which it is separated by a strong clay-soil: the proper channels of communication to the river had been neglected; while an immense influx of water from the adjoining higher grounds kept the whole tract constantly saturated, and produced an increasing mass of vegetable matter, disorganized and inert, and preserved by low temperature from putrefaction. Chat Moss is entirely composed of that vegetable substance which is known by the name of Peat; light and fibrous on the surface; black, compact, and heavy, in many respects resembling coal, when cut to a considerable depth; and the whole is without the least intermixture of sand, gravel, or any other than pure vegetable material. The depth may be estimated as averaging from ten to upwards of thirty feet. The immediate cause of peat-moss appears to be the presence of the *Sphagnum palustre*, strictly an aquatic plant, varying in its height from a single inch to three or four feet. Mr. Roscoe tells us that this substance, in many parts of Chat Moss, may be found in its regular laminæ, the deposition of each year being distinct and divisible. Various mosses, lichens, and scirpi, interspersed with the several species of *Drosera*, possess themselves of different parts according to their various degrees of humidity. Towards the reclamation of these almost Pontine marches, the first laborious step is a thorough and effectual drainage. The manner in which Mr. Roscoe proceeded is detailed minutely: but for the particulars we must refer to the volume. With respect to the *cultivation* when the drainage is completed, the usual mode adopted in Lancashire is by paring and burning. So far from improving moss-land, however, Mr. R. says that the first crop is usually the best; and that a course of burning in a few years produces a great quantity of inert and insoluble matter, which deteriorates instead of improving the soil. In point of fact, mosses cultivated or rather managed in this manner, for a few years, are afterward frequently abandoned, and become worse than they were before any attempt was made to reclaim them. The only real improvement of moss-lands is to be effected by the introduction of calcareous substances, of which lime and marle are the principal; and these Mr. Roscoe employed in very considerable quantities,

and with very advantageous effect. He puts so large a portion as two hundred cubic yards of marle on a single acre. When the moss is converted into *soil* by the application of a sufficient quantity of calcareous matter, animal manure will be employed on it with the same advantage as on old arable lands; and beans, wheat, potatoes, oats, turnips, clover, in short all agricultural productions, will contribute liberally to remunerate the spirited and patriotic speculator.

Summary as our notice has been of the several papers contained in this volume, we trust that it will furnish our readers with sufficient information to enable them in some degree to appreciate the value of its contents. They who interest themselves in agricultural pursuits will probably refer to the work; while others, to whom the detail of a farm-yard journal is indifferent, will be satisfied with the outline which we have afforded them.

ART. VI. *Church of Englandism and its Catechism examined: preceded by Strictures on the exclusionary System, as pursued in the National Society's Schools: interspersed with parallel Views of the English and Scottish Established and Non-established Churches: and concluding with Remedies proposed for Abuses indicated, and an Examination of the Parliamentary System of Church Reform lately pursued, and still pursuing: including the proposed new Churches.* By Jeremy Bentham, Esq. Benchet of Lincoln's Inn, and late of Queen's College, Oxford, M. A. 8vo. pp. 794. 1l. Boards. Wilson. 1818.

WHEN institutions of any kind are first founded, they are usually suited to the sentiments, manners, and exigencies of the times: but all these fitnesses between particular establishments, and the circumstances in which they originate, must be in some degree of a transient nature; and, at any rate, in the lapse of two or three centuries, they are likely to be diminished in their primary adaptation to the character, the habits, or the moral and intellectual necessities of the people for whom they were designed. Those persons, who contend for the immutable permanence of human institutions, should recollect that the mind is in a state of perpetual change. Where no counteracting force is employed, or no casual impediments intervene, it is incessantly advancing from one degree of knowledge to a higher: some accession is perpetually making to its stores; and its opinions are constantly undergoing important changes, or receiving new modifications. Now, as all human institutions ought to be in unison with the ideas of those for whose use they are intended,

tended, a change in the one renders more or less expedient a corresponding alteration in the other; and, whenever antient enactments are in direct opposition to modern convictions, it is more politic to bring the former to something like an agreement with the latter, than to force opinions down to a level with antiquated conceptions. In the first case, we promote the advance of the human intellect, and suffer it to proceed in its natural progression to a higher degree of excellence: in the second, we endeavour to stint this growth of the mental powers, and to prevent man from ascending to his proper elevation in the intellectual sphere.

At the period of the Reformation in this country, the antient institutions of the Romish church had become incompatible with the customs, sentiments, and temper of the times. That which had once been consecrated by opinion had assumed an opposite character, or was seen in an opposite light: that which had once been deemed venerable now appeared ridiculous, or profane; in the mirror of the new sentiments which had arisen on topics of religious consideration: that which had been once cherished as salutary truth had begun to be abominated as pernicious imposition; and a large part of the Romish ritual was discovered to be only an artful contrivance to enslave the human mind, and to advance the domination or to fill the coffers of the church. The wise men, however, who at that time directed the destinies of the ecclesiastical establishment, were happily not prevented by any dread of innovation from endeavouring to accommodate our religious institutions to the new sentiments and feelings of the age: they therefore separated from the church of Rome, and formed a communion on a new basis, more suited to the temper of the times and the condition of the people.

This great change in the religious institutions of our country, took place at an epoch, in which the reformed church was in perfect unison in its doctrines and ceremonies with the convictions of the most virtuous and enlightened part of the community. It was framed by Cranmer, Ridley, and others, who in their day had no superiors in learning or in probity. It was not, however, designed as a powerful piece of mechanism to keep the understanding of the worshipper prostrate at the foot of the priest: in its doctrines and its rites, it was rather before than behind the knowledge of the times, and the light of the age; and thus it tended to counteract instead of to promote the superstition of the people, to exalt rather than to depress the understanding, and to diffuse a more pure and a more rational worship through the land.

Mr. Bentham, therefore, can scarcely be said to have treated this church with a sufficient portion of candour, or even an entire adherence to accuracy, when he talks of the Establishment as if it were a system purposely contrived to cripple the intellect, to deprave the heart, and to initiate the individual in those habits of falsehood and insincerity, which would be most likely to convert him into a pliant instrument for the corrupt designs of a corrupt government. This certainly was not the original purport either of the Catechism of the church of England, or of any other of its formularies. In the change of times and circumstances, that church may, and probably has, become liable to many of Mr. Bentham's severe remarks; because, as we have already intimated, no human institution can well continue for two or three centuries without exhibiting numerous indications of deterioration and decay, unless it has, at successive intervals, been opportunely and providently reformed. Time alone will impair that which man does not preserve; and those moral institutions, which are composed of such mutable and evanescent materials as sentiments and opinions, require even a more vigilant care and a more constant renovation, than even those palpable and solid edifices which are exposed to the wasting agency of the physical elements. The torrent of opinion, which is rolling on from age to age, is scarcely visible to human sight: but, if it could be made an object of general perception, it would forcibly shew that all the moral and political institutions of man must, in the process of time, necessarily undergo one change after another, according to the alterations in the human mind; and that the only way, in which any existing generation can render these changes safe and tranquil, is in some degree to anticipate their arrival: thus preventing those violent agitations, which necessarily arise when circumstances force the destruction of abuses, in opposition to the adverse wills of interested individuals. These remarks are applicable to the whole question both of civil and ecclesiastical reform.

Between two and three centuries have passed since the first publication of the book of Common Prayer; and it has undergone no alterations in point of doctrine, and only a few in point of form. In the long intermediate space, however, a great accession to the stores of scriptural knowledge and theological erudition has been made. When the Reformation commenced, the authority of St. Austin was in fact more esteemed than that of the Scriptures; or, at least, it is certain that the doctrines of all the reformed churches were made more in unison with his writings than with the genuine sense

sense of the Bible. Indeed, the authority of this African saint operated like a noxious mildew on the minds of the Reformers, and on the doctrines which they taught; and, in the reformed church of Cranmer and Ridley as well as in that of Luther or Zuingle, in the articles of the confession of Augsburg as well as in those denominated, from their number, the Thirty-nine, more weight has been allowed to the authority of St. Austin than to that of all the Evangelists and Apostles, or even than to the paramount authority of Christ. — In the present age, however, when the Scriptures are so much better understood than they were in the days of Cranmer and Ridley, or of Luther and Zuingle, is it not a duty which we owe both to piety and to truth, to purify the liturgy of the established church from the taint of those doctrines which were not extracted from the limpid spring of the Christian Scriptures, but were introduced from the polluted writings of a profligate and persecuting saint?

If we consider the present state of the church of England, both in its doctrine and its practice; if we contemplate the objections with which its various formularies are chargeable, and the unscriptural errors with which they abound, compared with the advanced sentiments of the age and the scriptural knowledge which is every where diffused; we shall find that some reformation is absolutely necessary, in order to elevate the Establishment in the estimate of public opinion, to preserve its respectability, and to augment its usefulness. If, in the reign of Edward VI. or of Queen Elizabeth, the church was in need of a reformation to accommodate it to the changes which had then taken place, can we not perceive a still greater necessity for farther improvement, in order to bring the whole system into a more harmonious union with the increased intellect and comprehensive charity of our own days? No human institution, the basis of which rests on opinion, can be perpetuated without change. As it arises out of a mass of mutable elements, it must itself be mutable; for how else is it to be rendered compatible with the constitution of the human mind?

The high but peculiar character of the writings of Mr. Bentham is well known to the public, and to the readers of our pages. In the volume before us, he has scrutinized the questions and answers of the Church-catechism with a very penetrating eye; and he has made the errors and imperfections, detected in that survey, the subject of many pointed and caustic, but often coarse and unbecoming animadversions. Not contented with assailing this venerable repository of juvenile orthodoxy with the weight of argument, which he

can always so amply command, he has recourse to the aid of sarcasm and wit, in which he is neither so well provided nor so well skilled. Still, we think, he has succeeded in shewing that the institution of the church of England, in its formularies, its doctrine, and its discipline, is not now sufficiently adapted to the strengthened light of the present day. His work contains much extraneous matter: but that part of it which comprehends the strictures on the Catechism is more particularly deserving of notice; and from it we shall select such passages as will fully shew the opinions of the author on the doctrines of the church, and on the tendency, which he supposes them to possess, to degrade the understanding and morals of the rising generation. We must, however, request it to be understood that, while we do this in order to make our readers acquainted with Mr. Bentham's sentiments, we by no means approve them all, or the manner in which they are expressed. Some of his remarks, indeed, are beneath the dignity of a man of his character in the literary world, and of his distinguished elevation in the public esteem; and surely he might have felt that his observations would not have lost any of their force, if many of them had been more courteously expressed. If we may not now, or might not at any time, lull ourselves with the hope of dwelling under the shadow of an immaculate hierarchy, we should indeed be ashamed to think or to insinuate that it is not adorned by bright examples of unfeigned piety and undissembled worth; and be it remembered that many of its wisest and best dignitaries have been, and are, known to admit the desirableness of a revision of some of the formularies of our venerable church-establishment.

Mr. Bentham makes the following remarks on that part of the answer to the second question in the Catechism, which contains the words, "*In my baptism, wherein I was made a member of Christ, the child of God, and an inheritor of the kingdom of heaven:*"

“Already the contempt of truth, pregnant with those incongruities, of which that corrupt affection is so naturally productive, begins to manifest itself. In this formulary, styled a *Catechism*, will be found involved, though many of them tacitly, in a manner, and without any sufficient warning, a system of assertions, prodigious in extent and variety, contained in another formulary, being the verbal part of a ceremony of prior date, called *Baptism*. Of this anterior ceremony, the *examinee*, a child, commonly but just able to speak — a child, in which the faculty of name has as yet scarcely begun to develope itself — a child completely incompetent to the forming of any judgment, or so much as a conception,
in

in relation to the matter contained in it, is made to take upon himself to pronounce the effect.

‘ Here, then, the first lesson which he is made to learn, and *that* under the notion of forming his mind to the sentiment of *piety*, is a lesson, which, if it amount to any thing, and has any meaning, is a lesson of *insincerity*: and which, in as far as it forms him to any thing, forms him to insincerity. For hereby *what* is the declaration which he is made to utter? — a declaration, asserting in the character of a true fact, the fact of his entertaining a persuasion which in truth he does not entertain, and which that he should entertain is, in the nature of the case, not possible. When by Rousseau, on the occasion of the stories commonly put into the hands of children, under the name of *Fables*, the practice, of thus drawing from the fountain of falsehood and misrepresentation the first aliment presented to the infant mind, was held up to view, and the absurdity and mischievous tendency of it displayed, deep and extensive was the sensation produced by the remark, not less so the conviction and recognition of the justice of it. But if, in any such profane book of instruction, the admission of falsehood be incongruous, and the habit of regarding it not only with indifference but with approbation pernicious, how much more so in a book of religious instruction? — in a book professing to introduce men to the favour of the God of truth?’

On the answer to the third question, “ What did your god-fathers and god-mothers then for you?”, Mr. Bentham contends that this formulary loads the child in its very infancy with indefinite, mysterious, and impossible obligations. One of these obligations, which the sponsors contract for the child before it can speak, think, or judge for itself, is that it shall “ renounce the Devil and all his works, the pomps and vanity of this wicked world,” &c. With respect to the Devil, who is thus renounced, Mr. Bentham puts some interrogatories which we must leave to be answered by the next general council that shall be convened to harmonize the distracted opinions of Christendom.

‘ In the first place,’ says Mr. B., ‘ the Devil himself, — of whom so decided and familiar a mention, as of one whom every body knows, is made — Where lives he? Who is he? What is he? The child itself, did it ever see him? by any one, to whom, for the purpose of the inquiry, the child has access, was he ever seen? The child, has it ever happened to it to have any sort of dealings with him? Is it in any such danger as that of having, at any time, to his knowledge, any sort of dealings with him? — If not, then to what purpose is this *renouncement*? and, once more, what is it that is meant by it? Suppose him, however, to have actually renounced this Devil — that is, speaking of this Devil, to have said, *I renounce him* — in what condition is he, other than that which he would have been in, had no such renouncement

nouncement been made? — The engagement, whatever it be, if any, which by this renunciation has been taken, by what *act* or *acts* is it that it would be *violated*?

Mr. Bentham appears to put the existence of his Satanic majesty on a level with that of Jupiter or Juno. ‘Who?’ he asks, ‘who were Jupiter and Juno, and the rest of them? Who but so many *Devils*, who, applying their influence to the inhabitants of this earth, caused themselves to be respectively worshipped under those classic names.’ — Some of Mr. B.’s strictures on those ‘*pomps*,’ which constitute one of the subjects of baptismal renunciation, are very forcible, and deserve attentive consideration.

‘Under the word *pomp* are comprised all those factitious appendages, by which factitious dignity, — when combined with the visible and tangible fruits and marks of opulence, — is, in the hands of the *ruling few*, employed to distinguish them from the *subject many*.

‘The *Monarch*, in the first place, is it not by *pomp* that he is intended and enabled to display and preserve his *dignity*, and therewith and thereby to maintain his *power*? The robes — the sceptre — the crown — the train of attendants, in so many forms and colours — armed and unarmed — if these be not the elements of *pomp*, what others are?

‘Not to speak of *Lords Temporal*, with their *titles*, their *coronets*, and their *armorial ensigns*, behold the *Lords Spiritual* with the “*fine linen*” on their *shoulders*, the “*purple*” on their *liveries*, the *purple* and the *mitre* on their *equipages*. If not of these things, of what things is “*pomp*” made?

‘Of all these holy personages — these sitting and walking pageants — what one has there ever been, by whom all these *things* have not been thus solemnly *renounced*? — all these *things*, to which, disguised under the name of *decency*, they now cling with such fond and undisguised affection: — these *things*, of which the very essence of their order is, according to them, composed, and by the taking away of which *the Church* would, according to them, be laid in ruins, and along with it *the State*.

‘That this so much magnified instrument of theatrical piety is neither more nor less than a farce, — that nothing that is to be found in it need or ought to be considered as possessing any binding force, — that it is neither more nor less than so much sound without sense, — is not this the comment, which, in that highest of all high places, the text receives from practice?

‘Such, then, being the judgment passed on it by the highest of all authorities, by what inferior authority — by what private individual — should any different judgment be passed upon it?

‘And this is the “*instruction which*” (as it says itself in and by its title) is “*to be learned* of every person before he be brought to be confirmed by *the Bishop*.” — By the Bishop? and by what Bishop? — by the self-same Bishop, who try the

"pomp," whatever they are, by which he is surrounded, manifests the contempt with which, by himself, this same *instruction* is regarded: and who, at the very time, when the youthful votaries, whom he beholds at his feet, are passing examination under his eye, — and, under his authority, in and by the words thus forced into their mouths, made to declare the knowledge which they have of its contents, and the sentiments of veneration with which, by these same contents, they have been impregnated, — is all the while, in relation to these same contents, making manifest, if not his deliberate contempt of them, at least his ignorance or negligence.'

Of the tripartite answer to the 5th question, "*What dost thou chiefly learn in these articles of thy belief?*", the last clause says, "*I learn to believe in God the Holy Ghost, who sanctifieth me and all the elect people of God:*" on which Mr. Bentham thus expatiates:

'Here, then,' says he, 'in this word (*sanctification*) we have the name of a sort of *process*, which the child is made to say is going on within him; going on within him at all times — going on within him at the very instant he is giving this account of it. This process, then, what is it? Of what feelings is it productive? By what marks and symptoms is he to know whether it really is or is not going on within him, as he is forced to say it is? How does he feel, now that the Holy Ghost is *sanctifying* him? How is it that he would feel, if no such operation were going on within him?

'Too often does it happen to him, in some shape or other, to commit *sin*; or something which he is told and regarded to believe is *sin*: an event which cannot fail to be frequently, not to say continually, taking place, if that be true, which in the Liturgy we are all made so decidedly to confess and assert, — viz. that we are all — all of us without exception — so many "*miserable sinners*." In the school-room, doing what by this Catechism he is forced to do, saying what he is forced to say, the child thus declares himself, notwithstanding a *sanctified* person. From thence going to church, he confesses himself to be no better than "*a miserable sinner*." If he is not always this miserable sinner, then why is he always forced to say he is? If he is always this same miserable sinner, then this sanctification, be it what it may, which the Holy Ghost was at the pains of bestowing upon him, what is he the better for it?

'The child, into whose mouth these words are forced, does he not so much as suppose himself to feel going on within him any process, to which the word *sanctification* can be applied? If not, then what is it that this same *sanctification* means? and why is it that he is made to speak of the Holy Ghost, as performing or having performed it upon him, when he feels not any such thing, nor knows any thing about the matter?

'Does he then feel or suppose any such particular operation going on within him? If so, then must this sanctification be the receiving

receiving of that inward light, which certain of the people called *Methodists* take upon them to speak of themselves as feeling within themselves. By the rulers of the Church, and their adherents, these *Methodists* are spoken of as *schismatics*, and a species of heretics. Quere, such reprobation, how is it consistent with the declaration thus expressed and included in this Catechism?

‘To be *sanctified* is to be made *holy*. By the child, be he who he may, sooner or later, this point of information will have been received, if it has not been already. While giving this answer, does the child then feel itself *holy*? — If *not*, then why is it to be forced to say it does? If *yes*, then is it already a *Methodist* child: an arrant *Methodist*.’

When the child is ordered to say what he desires of God in the Lord’s prayer, the answer commences thus: “*I desire my Lord God our heavenly Father, who is the giver of all goodness, to send his grace unto me and to all people.*” As no mention occurs in the whole prayer of any such thing or word as *grace*, Mr. Bentham argues that the answer of the child, which is at variance with the truth, must tend to produce an insensibility to that sacred obligation.

‘The mis-representation thus made, is it an innocent one? On the mind of every man, by whom this formulary is regarded as unexceptionable, the effect of it — is it not — in conjunction with so many other causes which the same formulary sets to work, — to contribute towards the reconciling him to that convenient laxity of interpretation, which among religionists is so unhappily frequent, — and, with relation to all worldly interests, so convenient?’

‘A subject-matter, of which every body sees that no mention is made in this Prayer — this subject-matter, a child, who sees that it is *not* there, is made to declare — to declare in the face of a clergyman, or other person, under whom he is passing this examination, — and who, as well as he, sees that it is *not* there, — to declare, and to declare most solemnly, that it *is* there.

‘The lesson, thus forced into every Church-of-England mouth, suppose it to be productive of any fruits whatsoever, — is it possible that, under such instruction, a rooted and habitual depravation of the mental faculties, intellectual and moral, should not be of the number of those fruits? To repeat, as if it were true, that which, with his own eyes, he sees to be untrue, this is what from infancy a child is compelled to practise — this is what he is made to reckon among the number of his *duties*.’

When, in reply to the question, “*How many sacraments hath Christ ordained in his church?*”, the child says, “*Two only*, as generally necessary to salvation,” &c., Mr. Bentham contends that the true answer would have been “*None*,” and he asks on what occasion, in the language in which Christ spoke, he is ‘represented as having employed any word, to which

which the word *sacrament*, taken from the Latin *sacramentum*, corresponds?"

Mr. Bentham argues that what is called the "Lord's supper," though it has been in later ages enveloped in a cloud of mystery, was 'neither more nor less than a mere social and farewell repast,' of which Jesus Christ partook with none but his most confidential friends; whom he tenderly admonishes to impress this their last meeting on their minds; and not to suffer the allurements of sense to make them forget what he enjoined, but to think of him, his precepts, his example, his life, and his death, even in their convivial hours. Mr. B. does not think that this supper was designed as an ordinance of perpetual obligation in all ages and countries in which Christianity is taught; and he says that, if any particular action of Christ had been selected for a subject of imitation, and converted into a solemn ceremony, 'the incident of the *feet-washing*' would have formed an ordinance of higher moral usefulness, and of more instructive application. — Many observations are offered by Mr. B. to shew that the doctrine, which the church of England has engrafted on the celebration of the Lord's supper, must have a vitiating effect, and administer to the multiplication of iniquity. We have not room to quote all that he has said on this subject: but several of his remarks deserve serious consideration. As the established doctrine is that the former sins of the individual are remitted during the act of communion, provided that he has a present feeling of repentance and of faith, Mr. Bentham contends that any individual may 'at all times have his bellyfull of sin,'* as long as he can feel this repentance between the commission of each sin and his participation of the next supper.

'Take a mouthful of bread and a mouthful of wine — taking care that before they are swallowed, whatsoever sins it has happened to you to commit, since the *last* preceding mouthful of each was swallowed, are truly repented of, — vanished are all these sins: all these sinful acts are caused not to have happened, and every thing is as it should be. Such is the virtue of this bread, and of this wine: — if not this, then what else is it?'

We cannot, however, farther attend to the contents of this multifarious and extraordinary work: but, before we part with Mr. Bentham, we must acknowledge that, in making out his case against the Catechism of the church of England, he has proved it to contain much of what he calls '*peccant matter*;' which cannot tend either to elevate the

* We need scarcely stop to animadvert on this exemplification of that gross levity of phraseology, which we have already censured in Mr. B.

minds or to purify the hearts of the rising generation. We repeat our dissent from him, however, when he says that this formulary was *originally designed* to effect the pernicious purposes which he has considered it as being now so likely to produce. As sincere not interested, impartial not servile, friends to our Church, the best advice which we can offer her is to lose no time in revising her various formularies; and, by expunging such parts as prove to be unscriptural or irrational, to increase their utility both in a moral and an intellectual point of view, to secure the approbation of the good and the wise, and thus to add to her dignity while she secures her permanence.

ART. VII. (No. I.) *A Description of Greenland.* By Hans Egede, who was a Missionary in that Country for twenty-five Years. A new Edition. With an Historical Introduction, and a Life of the Author. Illustrated with a Map of Greenland, and numerous Engravings on Wood. 8vo. pp. 328. 12s. Boards. Allman, &c. 1818.

ART. VIII. (No. II.) *Greenland: being Extracts from a Journal kept in that Country in the Years 1770 to 1778.* By Hans Egede Saabye, formerly ordained Minister in the Districts of Claushavn and Christianshaab; now Minister of Udbye, in the Bishopric of Fühnen; and Grandson of the celebrated Hans Egede. (Now first published.) To which is prefixed, an Introduction, containing some Accounts of the Manners of the Greenlanders, and of the Mission in Greenland; with various interesting Information respecting the Geography, &c. of that Country; and illustrated by a Chart of Greenland, by G. Fries. Translated from the German. 8vo. pp. 302. 10s. 6d. Boards. Boosey and Sons. 1818.

ART. IX. (No. III.) *Greenland, the Adjacent Seas, and the North-west Passage to the Pacific Ocean,* illustrated in a Voyage to Davis's Strait, during the Summer of 1817. With Charts and numerous Plates, from Drawings of the Author taken on the Spot. By Bernard O'Reilly, Esq. 4to. pp. 300. 2l. 10s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

ART. X. (No. IV.) *A Chronological History of Voyages into the Arctic Regions;* undertaken chiefly for the Purpose of discovering a North-east, North-west, or Polar Passage between the Atlantic and Pacific: from the earliest Periods of Scandinavian Navigation, to the Departure of the recent Expeditions, under the Orders of Captains Ross and Buchan. By John Barrow, F.R.S. 8vo. pp. 431. 12s. Boards. Murray. 1818.

THE present eager appetite of the public for every sort of information connected with the arctic regions, and the announcement of the official accounts of our recent northern expeditions,

expeditions, prompt us to report the works now before us with as much dispatch as the nature of our multifarious and never-ceasing vocation will permit. Without farther preamble, therefore, we proceed to notice each in its order.

(No. I.) The historical introduction to Hans Egede's volume, which fills 90 pages, exhibits rather a dull and disjointed recital of facts, copiously intermingled with the doubtful allegations of Torfæus, Peyrère, and a Danish or Icelandic Chronicle; which last represents Greenland as a territory *so rich in gold and silver*, that it is inhabited only by *devils*. From the writer's indications of the various Danish expeditions to this land of wealth and demons, we are little tempted to select any extracts but such as strikingly demonstrate the unconquerable attachment of the *human* inhabitants to their native soil, and which irresistibly recall those inimitable lines of Goldsmith:

“ Dear is that shed to which his soul conforms,
And dear that hill which lifts him to the storms;
And as a babe, when scaring sounds molest,
Clings close and closer to the mother's breast,
So the loud torrent, and the whilwind's roar,
But bind him to his native mountains more.”

A number of Greenlanders having been brought away in Danish vessels, at different times,

‘ The King of Denmark caused particular attention to be paid to the three savages who had survived the preceding, and the five who had been imported by the last expedition to Greenland. They were fed upon milk, butter, and cheese, as well as upon raw flesh and raw fish, to which they had been accustomed at home. They appeared to have an invincible repugnance to our baked bread and dressed meat; nor did they relish any kind of wine so much as the oil and grease of the whale. They often turned a wishful and desponding look to the North; and sighed so anxiously to return to the place of their nativity, that, whenever they were watched with less vigilance than usual, those who had an opportunity seized any boat that was at hand and put to sea, regardless of the dangers they had to encounter. A storm once overtook some of these intrepid adventurers at ten or twelve leagues from the Sound, and forced them back to the coast of Schonen, where they were made prisoners by the peasantry and conveyed back to Copenhagen. This caused them to be guarded with more rigour, and kept under greater restraint. But three of them fell sick and died of grief.

‘ Five of these savages were alive and well when a Spanish ambassador made his appearance in Denmark; and the Danish monarch, in order to divert this stranger, caused these native
Green-

Greenlanders to exhibit their manœuvres in their little canoes upon the sea. The Spanish ambassador was quite delighted with the address which they displayed, and with the extraordinary celerity with which they glided over the waves. He made a present in money to each of the savages, which they expended in equipping themselves in the Danish fashion. They were accordingly seen booted and spurred, with large feathers in their hats; and in these habiliments they proposed to serve in the cavalry of the Danish King.

‘ But these high spirits of the Greenlanders lasted only for a short time; for they soon relapsed into their usual melancholy. They became entirely absorbed with the idea of returning to their native country; and two of them having obtained possession of their little boats put out to sea. They were pursued, but only one of them was taken, and the other probably perished in the waves; for it cannot be supposed that he ever returned to the land of his fathers. With respect to one of the savages, it was remarked, that he shed tears whenever he beheld a child at the breast; from which it was supposed, that he had left a wife and children at home.

‘ Of these surviving savages two pined away with regret. The two others lived ten or twelve years in Denmark after the decease of their companions. No pains were spared to reconcile them to their condition, but without success. One of them died of an illness, brought on by being employed in diving for the pearl muscle, during the depth of winter. His companion, who was inconsolable for his loss, again seized a boat and made an effort to escape from captivity. He had passed the Sound before he could be retaken, but he lived only a short time after this last attempt to recover his liberty.’

The biographical account of Hans Egede is sufficiently meagre: but, perhaps, more minute information concerning this pious and worthy personage is no longer attainable. It is here stated that he was born in Denmark, 31st of January, 1686, that he was bred for the church, and that he exercised the functions of a pastor, first at Vogen, and subsequently at Drontheim, in Norway. Being of an ardent and enthusiastic temperament, he early conceived the bold and perilous project of embarking in an expedition; with the view either of ascertaining the fate of those Norwegian settlers, who were said to have migrated to the east coast of Greenland, and of whom no intelligence had been received for centuries, or of forming a new colony, and devoting his life to the instruction and conversion of the Greenlanders. Having, in vain, repeatedly attempted to interest the Danish government in the furtherance of his schemes, he at length prevailed on some merchants and others to subscribe small sums; which, with about 60*l.*, the whole of his individual property, amounted to

to nearly 2000l.; and, with such very inadequate means, having purchased a vessel, he commenced preparations for his meditated establishment. In the spring of 1721, the Danish monarch, having been induced to think more favourably of Egede's views, appointed him pastor of the new colony, and missionary to the Heathens, with an annual pension of 60l., and a gratuity of 40l. for his immediate exigencies. He embarked, accordingly, on the 12th of May, 1721, with his wife and children, and forty settlers; and he landed on the 3d of July, in Ball's River, in the 64th degree of north latitude. In the capacity of a rational and zealous missionary, he laboured with unwearied assiduity in communicating instruction to the untutored natives, in conciliating their affections, and in imparting to them the consolations of the gospel of peace. On the accession of Christian VI., the Danish government, tired of an *unprofitable* connection with a sterile country, issued a mandate for the relinquishment of the colony: but Egede, with ten seamen, resolutely remained, determined to persevere in the work which had been so successfully begun; and the King of Denmark, sympathizing with so much constancy, or moved by entreaties, contributed some temporary supplies, accompanied by promises of more efficient aid. Yielding, however, to the pressure of bodily infirmity, caused by his laborious exertions in a rude and inhospitable climate, Egede finally withdrew from his station, and returned to Copenhagen, in 1736; leaving his eldest son, Paul, his successor in the enterprize. Still he devoted much of his time to the instruction of young missionaries in the language of Greenland. 'He also composed a grammar and a dictionary of that language, into which he translated the New Testament for the use of the mission and the benefit of the natives. He published the Description of Greenland, which is contained in the present volume, at Copenhagen, in the Danish language, the year preceding his death, which took place in 1758.'

Although this work has been, in various respects, superseded by some more recent and scientific narratives, it presents us with a simple and graphic delineation of the manners and habits of the natives during the period of the author's residence among them. The grossness of their superstition, it is true, has since gradually given way before the benign influence of the Christian system; fire-arms have, in numerous instances, supplanted the use of the bow; and the strong liquors and oaths of the Danes have detracted from the ancient reputation of the Greenlanders for sobriety of conduct, and for their ignorance of swearing. Yet many features

pass one another, without making use of any greeting or salutation: yet they are far from being unmannerly or uncivil in their conversation; for they make a difference among persons, and give more honour to one than to another, according to their merit and deserts. They never enter any house where they are strangers, unless they are invited, and when they come in, the master of the house, to whom they pay the visit, shows them the place where they are to take their seat.

‘As soon as a visitor enters the house, he is desired forthwith to strip naked, and to sit down in this guise like all the rest; for this is the grand fashion with them to dry the clothes of their guest. When victuals are put before him, he takes care not to begin eating immediately, for fear of being looked upon as starved, or of passing for a glutton. He must stay till all the family is gone to bed before he can lie down, for to them it seems unbecoming that the guest goes to rest before the landlord. Whenever a stranger comes into a house, he never asks for victuals, though never so hungry; nor is there any need he should; for they generally exercise great hospitality, and are very free with what they have; and what is highly to be admired and praiseworthy, they have most things in common; and if there be any among them (as it will happen) who cannot work or get his livelihood, they do not let him starve, but admit him freely to their table, in which they confound us Christians, who suffer so many poor and distressed mortals to perish for want of victuals.’

Farther we dare not proceed with our quotation, on account of the potency of the odour.

Notwithstanding the coldness of the climate, the women seem to suffer little from child-bearing, resuming their occupations almost immediately after delivery. It is also worthy of remark that parents never flog their children, nor correct them in the language of reproach: but ‘it is not rare to see that a man beats his wife, and gives her black eyes, for her obstinacy and stubbornness sake; however they are soon reconciled and good friends again, without bearing any grudge. For, according to them, it signifies nothing that a man beats his wife; but they do not like that a master should drub a servant maid.’ Their language is nearly assimilated to that of the Esquimaux; and, with the exception of some words derived from the Norse, it appears to have little or no connection with any of the dialects of Europe. In its application to objects already known to the natives, it is copious and energetic, but new substances and ideas are generally expressed by the corresponding Danish terms. It is also deserving of observation that their language is with great difficulty acquired by foreigners; and that it is provided with a regular singular, dual, and plural number; with suffixes and affixes, analogous to those of the Hebrew; with a multiplicity of
modes

modes and tenses; and with a singular capability of compounding and combining verbs, of which some curious examples are adduced in the sixteenth chapter.

How far the translator of this Description of Greenland may have executed his task with *fidelity*, we presume not to decide: but his defiance of the most elementary rules of English composition is too notorious to escape the notice even of a school-boy. Thus we have, p. 26., 'the English histories *informs* us;' — p. 30., 'three of the savages *which* they had carried off;' — p. 34., 'my main drift and endeavour *has* been;' — p. 45., 'there *is* to this day marks;' — p. 55., 'but the snow and ice *enlightens* the air;' — p. 70., 'It is said that they never bring forth more than two young ones at a spawning, which they *suck* with their teats,' &c. &c. In the following sentences, the meaning of the terms in italics is too *foggish* for our age-worn optics. 'But as for rock crystal, both red and white, you find it here: the red contains some particular *solis*, which can only be produced by the spagyric art.' — 'The other four-footed animals, which antient historians tell us are found in Greenland, are sables, martens, wolves, *losses*,' &c. — 'Some will have him to be in the likeness of an *ore*, white spotted, with horse feet,' &c.

The wooden cuts consist of a very few trifling vignettes, allusive to the text: the map, though on a diminutive scale, may answer the purpose of general reference.

(No. II.) Nearly one-half of M. Fries's Introduction is little else than a condensed statement of some of the most important chapters of the preceding work, with occasional references to changes which have since taken place. The author then treats of the successful progress of the Danish missionaries in converting most of the heathenish inhabitants to Christianity, and improving their habits and morals; while he inveighs against the sordid remuneration which government assigns to the toilsome and important services of the missionaries, catechists, and teachers. These and other preliminary remarks are followed by an enumeration of the Danish settlements and factories in Greenland; and by some judicious strictures, which ought to shake our belief in the popular traditions concerning the once flourishing condition of those eastern districts of the country, which are now regarded as inaccessible from the prevalence of ice. We are moreover apprized that to the Danish original of Saabye's narrative is prefixed a letter from Dr. Plum, Bishop of Fühnen, to the Privy-Counsellor, Bülow, who defrayed the expence of the publication.

"At the conclusion of his letter," says Crantz, "Dr. Plum calls our author's work a fine monument of the *golden times* of the mission in Greenland. How well founded this opinion is, is evident from what has been said before, chiefly after Wolf's Essay on the present Obstacles to the Mission. We must observe, that the Bishop not only caused the publication of this work, but that we owe to his suggestions several explanatory and very interesting remarks of our author."—We should premise, however, that this *Journal* is not composed in the form of a regular diary, and that portions of it appear to have been lost, or suppressed. Its commencement brings us in contact with formidable ice-bbergs; from the tops of which the human voice, and other sounds, are powerfully re-echoed: but, if the ice of which they are composed has become *rotten*, i. e. porous, or brittle, on the summit, the vibration produced in the air by any loud noise, or even by speaking, frequently shivers the floating mountain in pieces, with a tremendous crash, and too often with the destruction of life. On other occasions, we tremble for the safety of the writer, several of whose hair-breadth escapes are recorded with much interesting circumstantiality. Some of the other chapters, without much regard to arrangement of the materials, treat of the manners and customs of the Greenlanders, or of the author's singular adventures. We select his narrative of a journey to Jacobshavn, not because it is the most *harrowing* of his recitals, but because it is shorter than some other passages of more alarming import:

'I was indisposed, and resolved to go in the Christmas holidays to Jacobshavn, to get myself blooded by the merchant there: he was the only person, for some miles round, who could perform this operation; but the season was unfavourable; the 20th of December; there was no daylight; so near the equinox; the sea was stormy; the ice unsafe; and the icebergs, which were raised from the bottom by the high sea, extremely deceitful. However, I set out; necessity commanded; and a Greenlander had told me, the day before, that it was possible to go over the ice in the Isæfjord. Our party was in two sledges. We travelled half a mile by land, without any accident; but when we had got some part of the way over the bay, the ice grew so thin, that we were obliged to take all the dogs except four from the sledges: we should not have been able to do even this, any more than to turn, had not a piece of old ice given us an opportunity to halt and unharness the dogs. We now continued our journey. At the distance of a musket shot to our left there was open sea, and on our right some Greenlanders were sitting at the foot of the neighbouring icebergs, to shoot seals. Far up the bay, icebergs were falling together with a dreadful crash. At last, after many dangers, we reached

reached the opposite coast. The way to the colony passed over a pretty high rock; we ascended it; looked back; and on the spot over which we had just driven in our sledges, there was no ice now to be seen! We thanked God for our escape, drove on, and reached the colony about eight o'clock in the evening, just as the merchant and the clergyman had sat down to supper.

'They had, indeed, heard the barking of strange dogs; but they could not possibly imagine that an European had ventured over the bay at this season, and did not mind it. I entered; and, as I perceived that I was not recognised, I seated myself on a bench near the door. The conversation was respecting me. The merchant turned to me, whom he took for a Greenlander, and asked me, with kindness, whether I had heard any thing to-day of the clergyman at Claushavn? "I have seen him to-day," — "Seen him!" he exclaimed; "you lie!" — "No!" said I, and stepped forwards. My arrival, at this time, astonished them; but, at the same time, they were happy to see me alive. Now they made me relate the circumstances of my journey over and over again. "My business," said I, "among other things, is to ask you to bleed me to-morrow." — "Very willingly," said he, "if necessity requires it; but it is the equinox, and this season is not considered favourable." The day came and went, without my resolving on any thing: the next day came; but whether it was the change of place, company, or conversation, or whatever it might be, my spirits were more cheerful, my blood cooler, and, as I was advised, I deferred, to another time, the bleeding for which I had come with such imminent danger.

'Now I was to return home again, as the holidays were at hand. But how? No Dane would venture, at this season, to go in a vessel out of the Isefjord (only the Greenlander in his Kajak ventures upon it); and in the bay itself, and between the rocks, it was extremely dangerous, though it was said, that, half a mile above the place where I had passed, it was still possible to get over the ice. I resolved, however, to return home, though my friends dissuaded me, and my good wife wrote to me by a Kajak, that the old catechist would attend to the divine service for the Greenlanders, and would read to the two Danes there a printed sermon; so that nothing should be neglected, and that I should, by all means, remain where I was.

'On the 23d of December, in the morning, I set out on my return: my friends accompanied me for some time; but, when the road began to be difficult, we took leave of each other, as their accompanying me any farther would only have detained me. After great exertions, and many dangers, we came to an iceberg, which, except for the space of two fathoms, was surrounded with open water. We could not pass over this water, nor was there any possibility of passing any where else; we were, therefore, obliged to resolve on climbing over the iceberg, which was not high, and seemed to be sound. A hazardous undertaking! However, we got over the iceberg happily; called our dogs, which swam over to us; and, at last, reached our shore. But the ice

was every where broken ; we could not land ; and there was every appearance of our being obliged to remain where we were. For some hours we drove and walked backwards and forwards, till, at last, we found, in a little creek, a narrow slip of ice fast to the land, over which we hastened, and got on shore. But my Greenlanders had never been so far up the country : they knew neither rocks nor vallies ; all they knew was, that we must travel towards the south-west, in order, if possible, to reach home. The evening was at hand, and, with that, the darkness. We did not know how long the way was which we had still before us. However, we had escaped the danger of the bay, and drove on full of hope ; but, after we had travelled about an hour, one of our sledges, in descending a rock, struck against a large stone : the thong that fastened the dogs to the pole broke ; and the dogs ran away, finding themselves free. This impeded our progress, for we were obliged to give the Greenlander a place in our sledge, and allow him to fasten his behind ours. The dogs reached home long before us, and were, as usual, received by the other dogs in the place with noise and barking. This made the Greenlanders come out of their houses ; and, as they knew the dogs were still wet, and their coats full of icicles, it was generally believed that we had perished. In anxious expectation, and almost without hope, my wife and the others went about ; when the dogs of the colony again began to bark, and thus announced our arrival. The joy of my wife was not to be described. The sudden transition from grief to joy had such an effect on my old catechist, whose son was my driver, that his scurvy seized him, and held him so fast to the earth, that he could not stir from the spot : I went up to him, and saluted him. To shew him that we were not so fatigued as to be unable to be cheerful, I said, “ Are we not active people ? ” — “ Yes,” said he, “ so active, that you will one day perish, to the sorrow of us all.”

Even subtracting much information which had been already communicated, though in a somewhat different style, by his grandfather, Mr. Saabye's pages contain some curious illustrations of character ; with casual traits of his own good sense and praise-worthy conduct, well adapted to the taste of amiable and intelligent readers. As, moreover, he describes scenery and incidents in the artless strain of truth and nature, we are not surprized to learn that his modest volume has experienced a popular and flattering reception.

(No. III.) Mr. O'Reilly's handsome and costly quarto at once attracts our regards by some corruscations of luminous vapour, but which we cannot accurately identify with the *polar light* ; because, after having flashed for a moment, he plunges us into the mists of Scandinavian lore, and abandons us to darkness. The gentle reader, however, will assuredly applaud his ‘ardency of inquiry,’ his zeal for science, and his

his admiration of nature; which prompted him to endure cold, privation, and peril, and with infinite condescension to coop himself up 'with uninformed, unsociable beings;' — or, in plain English, to be rated as a surgeon on board the *Thomas*, whaler, of Hull. With much formality, he states the doubts and difficulties in which all historical investigations of the arctic regions are involved, as if such doubts and difficulties had not been long generally felt and acknowledged: but the intelligence conveyed in the following inflated period is novel, at least to us:

'Aware of the system, by which, according to law, the Government is furnished with a log returned from each ship employed in the "Greenland fisheries" — a log calculated to support philosophical inquiry, only by reciting an exhibition of voyage by no means prejudicial to the ship-owner's interest, and quite enough for the Government to know when *additional revenue is the object to be recorded* on the collector's books — perfectly aware of this, it appeared incumbent on one devoted to the cause of science to abstract himself from such interested purposes — to leave to the mate of a ship such arrangements of his log as might best suit the purposes of his employers, and to the master such plans of his private journal as, detailing every circumstance which could aid the advancement of his own interest, might be unseen by every eye but his own.'

A cluster of rocky islets, about one hundred in number, and which the author honoured with the appellation of the *Linnæan Isles*, frequently figures as the *ne plus ultra* of this disinterested and philanthropic expedition. On one occasion, '*the termination of the Linnæan Isles came distinctly in view, the open sea lying beyond, when the latitude, no observation being taken, was most probably about the seventy-seventh degree.*' We should have been inclined to place more implicit confidence in this statement, if the subsequent accounts of the position and direction of these islands had been more consistent with one another, and if the alleged latitude had been verified by observation.

The main body of the volume is put together with somewhat less parade of diction than the Preface and Introduction: but still the occasional insertion of a new term, or the suppression of the article, or an affectation of philosophical reflection, reminds us that we are far removed from the simplicity of Egede and his grandson. Mr. O'Reilly has, however, embellished his work by elegant engravings and typography, and has manifested a laudable exercise of discretion in separating the technical portions of his journal from his observations of a more general and popular form. While, also, he betrays a disregard

disregard of the nautical records of the master and mate, he appears to have studied and registered with assiduity the varying phases and temperature of the atmosphere; thus furnishing data from which both the mariner and the naturalist may deduce some useful meteorological inferences. The outward voyage, the state of Greenland and its inhabitants, the arctic ice and arctic zoology, form the leading subjects of his first five chapters; and considerations relative to the Northwest passage constitute, almost exclusively, the theme of the remaining six.

Mr. O'Reilly premises his account of the voyage northward by a short explanation of the Howardian nomenclature of clouds, which he accommodates to the exigencies of his own diary. Little that deserved notice seems to have occurred during the passage to Greenland: but it is remarked of the first natives of that country who came on board the vessel, and bartered some parts of their dress with the sailors, that they had their lower extremities remarkably small, and that they struck an object at the distance of twenty yards with surprising dexterity.

The stratification of Disko, if accurately exhibited, is formed of rude blocks of basalt, superimposed horizontally on one another.

In the second chapter, some arguments are adduced in favour of the now generally received opinion that Greenland is intersected by various channels, and that it is thus composed of a group of islands. — The author's portrait of the character of the natives, though more elaborately sketched than those which were presented by Crantz, Egede, and others, does not materially differ from them in its prominent and essential features. We cannot, however, refrain from remarking that the placidity and contentedness of these semi-barbarians, their warmth of attachment to country, relatives, and friends, their want of written laws, their aversion to quarrelling, their secure enjoyment of property, and their abhorrence of the immoralities of the Danish exiles and settlers, might supply some curious chapters in the ethical history of our paradoxical race. In spite of his shew of classical learning and ingenious etymology, Mr. O'Reilly's account of the Greenlandish language is far more superficial than that which occurs in the unpretending pages of Egede; and his strained derivation of *Esquimaux* and *Greenland* is no flattering sample of his philological acumen. He is, probably, more fortunate when he affirms that the Greenlanders are of Tartar origin, and that a mixed breed has proceeded from their casual union with Danes. 'Some of the children of the Europeans

by the Uskee women are quite fair, but all have that remarkable attachment to their country which the genuine natives evince. The young man who amused the people at Hull, Leith, and in the Thames, with the exercise of his kaiak, was the son of a Dane, but his mother was a native of Greenland. It is said that the sister of that young man was so much grieved at the thoughts of his going from his dear home that she pined away, and died of grief. Such is their excessive attachment to their country.'

Mr. O'Reilly dilates, with considerable confidence, on the formation of polar ice: but more than one trip to the probable latitude of seventy-seven would be requisite to determine all the circumstances which produce that phenomenon. In the mean time, we may readily concede that no permanent congelation is likely to take place where the sea is perfectly open, deep, and frequently agitated; and that the fresh water of dissolved ice is no conclusive proof that the consolidation originated on land, because a large proportion of the salt is extricated in the act of freezing, and fresh water is added by the melting of the superficial snow.

The chapter on arctic zoology is somewhat needlessly prolonged by notices of animals, of which the habits and manners have been repeatedly described; and we cannot assign any satisfactory reason why so much should be said of the common Seal, and so little of the Walrus, or Morse, of which the history suggests three important reflections. 1. It furnishes us with one among many instances, which seem to prove that fear and distrust of the human race are not originally inherent in animals, but the result of experience, which teaches them to avoid all those beings whose superior strength or skill has proved injurious to their existence. 2. That the all-wise and bountiful Creator, when he destined this animal to reside in the northern seas, provided it with a thick covering of fat, to protect it from the inclemency of the weather. 3. That in an apparently shapeless mass of matter, and under the protracted rigours of the polar winter, the warmth of the vital principle and the charms of parental and filial affection are found to exist; and to soothe and enliven, with their moving and tender interests, the dreary abodes of frost and tempest.

The author's physiological remarks on the circulation of the blood, and on the existence of the *foramen ovale* in the seal, are not the least ingenious which occur in the course of the volume: but we have not room to quote them.

The few particulars which are recorded of a variety of *Delphinus orca*, denominated the *Sword-grampus*, may also be
new

new to some of our scientific readers. Among reputed novel-ties in ornithology, we find enumerated *Procellaria gravis*, or *Cape hen*, *Larus maximus*, *burgomaster*, or *white-winged gull*, and *Colymbus glacians*, or *rook*. The last mentioned is 'new in description,' and is accordingly depicted by the author in the text and in an engraving.

In his sixth chapter, after some hypercritical carpings at the announcement of our recent expeditions, as it appeared in the public prints, Mr. O'Reilly volunteers his effusions on the much-agitated question of a North-west passage; and, by way of suitable preface, he details the memoranda of his voyage in Davis's Strait, though they rarely throw any direct light on the important problem in question. In the course of the journal, some singular atmospherical phænomena are described, of which we quote two instances.

'At midnight the wind set in at S. W. light breeze, at which time a milky stratus encircled the horizon, and in the point of wind a beautiful exhibition of cirrocumulus occurred, the patches being edged with a rich tinting of sun-light, which contrasted with good effect to the purplish-brown swell of the centre. Out of this assemblage of small clouds, there issued a brilliant radiation of snow-white cirrus, such as has been observed in the journal on the 13th of June. This radiation seemed to shoot from behind and above the cirrocumulus cloud just mentioned, instantaneous, rapid, and resistless as the polar coruscation. At first a continuous stream of white issuing from an irregular coronal ring, apparently touching the cloud: from this ring a mazy spire descending held communication with the cloud: from the point in which the sun was sweeping his lowest arch, other radiations, shorter and more sharp, came in response to the former, to which succeeded a gradual but uninterrupted change of the radiations from the cloud into a reticulated form with recurved points: the cirrocumulus also underwent a partial dissolution in the mean time; the denser patches descending in loose yellowish-brown cirrostratus.

'I have been thus particular in detailing the circumstances of this phenomenon, as I am not aware that the like has been before observed by any person else. Of its utility the philosophic reader may possibly form a better conclusion, than I can presume to do; yet as many such may not have the opportunity of witnessing the like, from the difficulty of access, whilst on the spot I felt it my duty, in the cause of science, to record what I had observed.'—

'The mist in the afternoon appearing rather shallow, the upper atmosphere being mostly clear, I was induced to ascend to the hurricane house, in hopes of seeing the land more satisfactorily, when a phenomenon of novel character presented itself to view.

'The

‘The sun-light falling on the mist formed an ellipsis strongly illuminated, apparently rising from the surface of the sea to the upper edge of the mist, at an angle of about twenty degrees from the horizon. In this ellipsis the iridescent colours were not distinguishable. The inner edge was pearly white, with the faintest tinge of blue; the middle, yellowish, deepening into brown and purple; the outer edge a blackish blue; beyond that, a brighter line; outside of which again lay the cirrostratus mist in its peculiar brown. Within, the ellipsis was bounded by a deep blue line, and the inner space filled with mist of the same colour and illumination as the exterior.

‘In one centre of the ellipsis my shadow appeared depicted, the head surrounded with a circle of the liveliest iridescence. Beyond this was another with similar iridescence; but the colours were reversed in order, and more faint; the belts were also broader. One circumstance surprised me much: whilst the ellipsis rose at an angle from the horizon, the iris circle appeared depicted on the surface of the sea. No account of such a phenomenon having in my recollection been recorded, I thought it might be deemed worthy of consideration.’

Towards the conclusion of this chapter, the author is led to infer that ‘no land lies about the pole;’ and, with much self-complacency, he recurs to the philanthropic and scientific motives which impelled him to communicate his observations.

A chapter is devoted to a very cursory record of former attempts to effect a passage to India by the polar seas: but, as these and similar attempts are more expressly set forth in the immediately succeeding article, it would be superfluous to touch on them at present. In our apprehension, they sufficiently warrant the conclusion that every future endeavour to sail to the pole, in the direction of Spitzbergen, is likely to prove abortive; and that, though a vessel properly constructed and equipped may, in certain favourable seasons, advance a few degrees farther northward, by the way of Davis’s Strait, an immense barrier of ice would nevertheless preclude its access to the pole. ‘But, even,’ says Mr. O’Reilly, ‘were the project of sailing to the pole a practicable one, is it inferred that in the event of such a thing being done, the objects of the present voyages would be accomplished?’ — and again, in the next sentence, he still asks, ‘to what utility could such a proceeding possibly lead?’ To these and all such queries, the answers appear to be obvious; for, in the case supposed, *one* grand object of the expeditions would be accomplished; and something more, we flatter ourselves, than the mere gratification of idle curiosity would redound to science from observations instituted at one of the extremities
of

of the earth's axis. In high northern latitudes, which have seldom been visited by men of learning, some important researches and experiments might be made relative to the magnetic and electric fluids, unusual meteorological appearances, and the natural history of tracts of country hitherto unexplored. Yet, in the present physical condition of the globe, we are not more sanguine than Mr. O'Reilly in our expectations of any such reduction of the icy continent, as would render the desired bourne attainable by the boldest British navigator. The effects of different winds, in augmenting or diminishing the accumulation of polar ice, have not escaped the author's sagacity; and, though briefly stated, they are sufficiently important to invite the attention of all who are concerned in the question.

With respect to the practicability of a North-west passage, the present writer is induced to believe that it ought to be tried by the shores of North America, and that it may be effected somewhere above the 74th degree. Under this impression, he urges the occupation of the island of Disko and the adjacent lands to the S. E. by the British, as a measure eminently conducive to the furtherance of the trial, and as laying a foundation for colonial traffic. On the supposition that the tract here indicated remains unexplored, and that it really offers a channel of communication between the two oceans, (of which we entertain very serious doubts,) that channel may, nevertheless, be so incumbered or impeded as to render its navigation too precarious and hazardous for the purposes of commercial intercourse. In the laudable prosecution of discovery, however, we are by no means solicitous either to conjure up imaginary difficulties, or to anticipate complete disappointment.

(No. IV.) The title of Mr. Barrow's publication sufficiently denotes its object, while the conception and execution of his plan are alike calculated to insure approbation. His compendious retrospect of former attempts to discover the long-sought communication is compiled with judgment, perspicuity, and interest; and it is occasionally interspersed with sensible and important reflections. This valuable *precis* of northern voyages is divided into five chapters; the first commencing with the early periods of Scandinavian navigation, and terminating with the close of the fifteenth century; and the others including, respectively, the 16th, 17th, 18th, and 19th centuries. The author seldom indulges in digression, and composes his abstracts with a *single eye* to the main design of his work: but he contrives, at the same time, to relieve the irksomeness of a chronological epitome, by
extracts

extracts from the collections of Hackluyt, Purchas, Harris, &c.: books which are now not very accessible, but which we peruse with a two-fold relish from the touching incidents which they relate, and from their antique simplicity of style. A map of the arctic regions, on a larger and more correct scale than that of Mr. O'Reilly, is prefixed to the volume; and the Appendix contains Lieutenant Buchan's account of his progress into the interior of Newfoundland; with a translation of the curious narrative fabricated by Muldonado, relative to the discovery of the alleged Strait of Anian.

The piratical expeditions of the Scandinavians are dismissed with suitable brevity: but we find no mention of Othere, the Norwegian, or Dane, who is said to have navigated the northern seas in the time of Alfred, and to have presented that celebrated Prince with teeth of *sea-wales*, or tusks of the morse. The two Zenos deservedly occupy a conspicuous niche in the gallery of the more early navigators; and the ingenious critical annotations of Buache, Eggers, and Forster, are cited in corroboration of the identity of Frisland with the Feroe islands.

Columbus's first voyage, when he had left the Mediterranean, appears to have been into the northern seas, in which he mentions that he had visited Iceland, though the object of this voyage is now unknown: but the mention of his name gives rise to a short discussion on the pretended claims of Behaim, of Nuremberg, to the discovery of America. John and Sebastian Cabota then pass in review; and the first chapter closes with an interesting sketch of the Cortereals.

Among the most distinguished arctic navigators of the 16th century, we may reckon Sir Hugh Willoughby, Richard Chancellor, Sir Martin Frobisher, Edward Fenton, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, John Davis, Maldonado, and Barentz.

'We hasten,' says Mr. Barrow, (p. 51.) 'to those brilliant periods of early English enterprise, so conspicuously displayed in every quarter of the globe; but in none, probably, to greater advantage than in those bold and persevering efforts to pierce through frozen seas, in their little slender barks of the most miserable description, ill provided with the means either of comfort or safety, without charts or instruments, or any previous knowledge of the cold and inhospitable regions through which they had to force and to feel their way; their vessels oft beset amidst endless fields of ice, and threatened to be overwhelmed with instant destruction from the rapid whirling and bursting of those huge floating masses, known by the name of ice-bergs: yet so powerfully infused into the minds of Britons was the spirit of enterprise, that some of the ablest, the most learned, and most respectable men of the times,

not only lent their countenance and support to expeditions fitted out for the discovery of new lands, but strove eagerly, in their own persons, to share in the glory and the danger of every daring adventure.'

The sufferings of William Barentz and his crew, who were doomed to pass a winter on the dismal shores of Nova Zembla, are rehearsed in a very affecting manner: but, as the passage is too long for insertion, we must be contented to refer our readers to the original.

In the 17th century, our attention is principally attracted by the repeated voyages of Hall and Hudson, and those of Sir Thomas Button, Bylot, and Baffin, and Luk Fox. The mutiny of Hudson's men, and the deplorable fate of that intrepid but unfortunate navigator, are duly commemorated. Mr. Barrow's strictures on Baffin's second voyage will afford a specimen of the manner in which he comments on his documents.

' This voyage, which ought to have been, and indeed may still be, considered as the most interesting and important either before or since, is the most vague, indefinite, and unsatisfactory of all others, and the account of it most unlike the writing of William Baffin. In all his other journals, we have not only the latitude and longitude noted down, but the observations of the heavenly bodies from which they were deduced, and the arithmetical operation inserted; the longitude, the variation and declination of the magnetic needle, the courses steered, and a variety of particulars entered on the proper day; but in this most important voyage, purporting to have reached many degrees of latitude beyond any preceding voyage, and to have skirted the coast and islands of America, where the passage must have been found, if it has any existence, we have neither course, nor distance, nor variation of the compass, except once, and no one longitude whatever; so vague and indefinite indeed is every information left, which could be useful, that each succeeding geographer has drawn "Baffin's Bay" on his chart as best accorded with his fancy. It would almost seem as if Baffin was averse from discovery on this voyage; for when they had reached only the latitude $70^{\circ} 20'$, beyond which even Davis had been, he conceived "some dislike of the passage;" and the slovenly manner in which he runs over the numerous "sounds," in a very high degree of latitude, is quite vexatious; indeed, from the multitude of whales, which he describes to choke up those sounds, they were perhaps nothing more than openings between huge ice-bergs, or at any rate passages made by an archipelago of islands. Baffin is so much aware of this, that in his letter to Mr. John Wolstenholme he observes, "some may object and ask why we sought that coast no better?" to which he alleges, in answer, the badness of the weather, the loss of anchors, the weakness of the crew, and the advanced season of the year.

' Purchas, however, is blameable to a certain degree, for the meagreness of Baffin's journal and the suppression of a chart which accompanied it; for he admits, in a marginal note, that "this map of the author's for this and the former voyage, with the tables of his journal and sailing, were somewhat troublesome and too costly to insert." It may be observed, that Baffin drew off from the main land of America to the eastward, from the very spot where of all others a passage is most likely to be found; but he is not to blame for not then possessing that knowledge which Cook and Hearne and Mackenzie have since supplied.'

Chapter IV. commences with the ill-starred voyage undertaken by Knight, Barlow, and Vaughan; of which, however, not many particulars are known, 'as the two ships sent out upon it were lost, and the whole of their crews perished.' The proceedings of Sir Christopher Middleton, in 1741, are next canvassed, as are those of the other explorers of Hudson's Bay; viz. Moor, Smith, &c. Several errors and incongruities are pointed out in Hearne's Journey; and it is truly surprizing that both that traveller and Mackenzie have left it doubtful, whether they had actually come in contact with the ocean. — The failure of Captain Phipps's expedition is here ascribed to the peculiarly unfavourable season in which it was undertaken, though the commander was of a very different opinion: but Mr. Barrow conceives that few summers occur, in which 'there are not many openings in the wall of ice which usually stretches between the eastern coast of Greenland and the northernmost parts of Spitzbergen.' — The voyages of Captains Cook and Clerke, Lieutenant Pickersgill, &c. need scarcely to be recalled to the reader's recollection; and those of the Danish officers, Lowenorn, Egede, and Rothé, performed in 1786–1787, were alike unsuccessful. — Mr. Coxe's Account of Russian Discoveries absolves the author from the trouble of minutely particularizing the various attempts at opening a navigation between the White Sea and the Pacific ocean, through the Tartarian sea.

In 1815, Lieutenant Kotzebue, son of the celebrated writer, was intrusted with the command of an expedition fitted out at the expence of Count Romanzoff, with the view of ascertaining whether the sea on the northern coast of America afforded a navigable passage between the Atlantic and the Pacific. Though he failed in the great object of his search, 'he has made several interesting discoveries of new groups of islands in the Pacific; and he has done that which for the first time has been effected, namely, taking the temperature of the sea at the surface and at a certain depth at a parti-

cular hour every day, both on the outward and homeward voyage.' Mr. B. also observes; 'it is greatly to the credit of Lieutenant Kotzebue that, after a voyage of three years, in every variety of climate, he has brought back again every man of his little crew, with the exception of one who embarked in a sickly state.*'

Mr. Barrow's statement of the equipment of our recent expeditions may be regarded as official, and sets in a clear point of light the sagacity and liberality of those who presided over the undertaking. The ultimate results of these generous and munificent preparations will afford the best comment on the writer's own speculations and conjectures.

ART. XI. *The Testimony of Natural Theology to Christianity.*
By Thomas Gisborne, M. A. Second Edition. 12mo. pp. 298.
5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1818.

THE indications of design and benevolence, displayed in the visible creation, have formed a delightful subject of contemplation to the wise and the good in every age. Numerous beautiful passages, illustrative of the leading truths of natural theology, in the pages of both sacred and classic writers, are familiar to every reader; and the works of Ray, Derham, Bonnet, and Paley, have brought to view the farther evidence which the discoveries in natural history and the sciences afford of the wisdom, power, and goodness of one supreme intelligent First Cause. The respectable author of the present volume is, however, of opinion that these writers, and particularly the latter, have not carried the deductions from natural theology as far as they were available, but have 'left out of consideration most momentous truths concerning the Deity, and our relations to him, which by observation and natural reason man is capable of attaining.' He therefore courageously undertakes the task of supplying what former writers have left defective, and of proving the doctrines of original sin and the fallen state of man from geological phenomena!

Hitherto, geology has been regarded by many divines in the same light in which astronomy was viewed by the clergy in the fifteenth century, when Copernicus removed the earth from the centre of the universe, and made the sun and the fixed stars stationary in space. These innovations in science were deemed impious; the orthodox faith requiring all to

* * From personal conversation with Lieutenant Kotzebue.
believe

believe the immobility of the earth, under the penalties of death or imprisonment. "The progress of astronomy," however, says the celebrated Laplace, "has been the constant triumph of philosophy over the illusions of the senses;" and it is now lawful to acknowledge the annual and diurnal revolutions of the earth, notwithstanding certain texts which might be cited to arrest its course in the heavens. The phenomena which geology presents, particularly the succession of different extinct genera and species of animals, — of which the remains occur imbedded in the strata at great depths, and also on the summits of lofty mountains, — seem to indicate longer periods in the formation of our planet, than the six days of creation described by Moses, if we limit these days literally to twenty-four hours each. Hence many well meaning, but narrow minded, persons have been inclined to regard geological inquiries with no small degree of aversion: but Mr. Gisborne, on the contrary, has ventured to invade this imagined enemy's country, and thinks that he has thence obtained powerful auxiliaries to defend his favourite doctrines.

— " *Via prima salutis*
Quod minime reris, Graja pandetur ab urbe." VIRG.

How far he has succeeded in this new undertaking, we shall endeavour to shew: but it will be necessary to give an outline of his argument, which may be taken from the first part of the second chapter: (p. 14.)

Suppose a traveller, penetrating into regions placed beyond the sphere of his antecedent knowledge, suddenly to find himself on the confines of a city lying in ruins. Suppose the desolation, though bearing marks of ancient date, to manifest unequivocal proofs that it was not effected by the mouldering hand of time, but has been the result of design and of violence. Dislocated arches, pendant battlements, interrupted aqueducts, towers undermined and subverted, while they record the primeval strength and magnificence of the structures, proclaim the determined purpose, the persevering exertions, with which force had urged forward the work of destruction. Suppose farther, that, in surveying the reliques which have survived through the silent lapse of ages, the stranger discovers a present race of inhabitants, who have reared their huts amidst the wreck. He enquires the history of the scene before him. He is informed that the city, once distinguished by splendour, by beauty, by every arrangement and provision for the security, the accommodation, the happiness of its occupiers, was reduced to its existing situation by the deliberate resolve and act of its own lawful sovereign, the very sovereign by whom it had been erected, the Emperor of that part of the world. "Was he a ferocious tyrant?" — "No,"

it is the universal reply, "he was a monarch pre-eminent for consistency, forbearance, and benignity." — "Was his judgment blinded, or misled, by erroneous intelligence as to the plans and proceedings of his subjects?" — "He knew every thing but too well. He understood with undeviating accuracy, he decided with unimpeachable wisdom." — "The case, then," cries the traveller, "is plain; the conclusion is inevitable, your forefathers assuredly were ungrateful rebels; and thus plucked down devastation upon their city, themselves, and their posterity."

'The actual appearance of the globe, on which we dwell, is in strict analogy with the picture of an hypothetical city.

'The earth, whatever may be the configuration, whatever may have been the perturbation or the repose of its deep and hidden recesses, is in its superior strata a mass of ruins. It is not of one land, or of one clime, that the assertion is made; but of all climes, but of the earth universally. Wherever the steep front of mountains discloses their interior construction; wherever native caverns and fissures reveal the disposition of the component materials; wherever the operations of the miner have pierced the successive layers, beneath which coal or metal is deposited; convulsion and disruption and disarrangement are visible. Though the smoothness and uniformity which the hand of cultivation expands over some portions of the globe, and the shaggy mantle of thicket and forests with which nature veils other portions hitherto unreplenished and unsubdued by mankind, combine to obscure the vestiges of the shocks which our planet has experienced; as a fair skin and ornamental attire conceal internal fractures and disorganizations in the human frame: to the eye of the contemplative enquirer exploring the surface of the earth, there is apparent many a scar, testifying ancient concussion, and collision, and laceration; and many a wound yet unhealed, and opening into unknown and unfathomable profundity.' —

'A convulsion thus effected by the hand of the Creator, and reducing at the time of its occurrence the inhabited surface of the earth into a state of desolation and ruin, does not appear to admit of any other explanation than the following: that a moral change calling for such an event had taken place in that portion of the inhabitants of the earth, which was endued with moral agency and responsibility; in other words, that mankind had offended their Creator, by transgression of his laws, and had brought upon themselves penal consequences of disobedience.' — 'The universality of this overwhelming convulsion; and the corresponding co-extensiveness of the destruction, prove the general infliction, and consequently the state of transgression, to have been universal. It was not a partial visitation upon a separate portion of offenders, like the fiery tempest on Sodom and Gomorrah. It was the descent of avenging justice to envelope a world lying wholly under the penalty of sin.' (Pp. 64, 65.)

The convulsion, by which the reliques of the ocean were piled on the summits of the mountains, were occasioned,

Mr. G.

Mr. G. says, 'by a tremendous and an universal deluge, precisely corresponding with the scriptural account of that *penal flood*, for the production of which the fountains of the Great Deep were broken up, and the windows of heaven were opened.' Such are Mr. Gisborne's inferences from the present state of the globe. We have no hesitation, however, in asserting that these inferences are directly at variance with existing phænomena, and could never have been drawn by any person who had maturely reflected on the present condition of the strata that form the outer covering of our globe:—for, though a hasty inspection presents marks of confusion and desolation, a more enlarged view of the subject will evince that this apparent irregularity is essentially necessary to the habitable condition of the globe. Let us suppose, for a moment, that the fractured strata were again united and pushed down to their former level: the dry land would no longer be supplied with pure running streams of water; and the superfluity of moisture in rainy seasons would form stagnant and putrid pools, infecting the air with death. Without these disruptions, partial elevations, and depressions of the strata, the earth would have remained a solitary desert, fitted only for the abode of reptiles and amphibious animals. Or, admitting that some patches of land might have continued permanently dry, the beauty of the earth's surface would have been lost in one uninteresting plain, undiversified with mountains, hills, or valleys; and the mineral treasures, necessary for the convenience of man in civilized life, would have been placed below the reach of practicable research. To any person who admits the doctrine of final causes, the present condition of the strata affords convincing proofs, not of the wrathful vengeance of the Deity, but of his wisdom and benevolence, in preparing the surface of our planet to supply the wants and gratify the various instincts of its numerous inhabitants. Little more than a century has passed since some German writer undertook to defend the moral character of the Deity for making mountains, which he supposed were useless excrescences, like warts on the human face; and we do not think that Mr. Gisborne has evinced more wisdom in this part of his argument, because the facts are in direct opposition to the conclusions which he wishes to establish. In saying this, we shall be borne out by the concurrent testimony of every geologist of the present day who is practically acquainted with the actual condition of the strata, whatever may be his theological creed. Mr. Gisborne appears to have taken his opinions on geological phænomena, not from an examination of nature, but principally

from the writings of Kirwan and De Luc; who were theoretical geologists, and almost entirely unacquainted with the order of succession of the upper strata; or with the organic remains by which they are characterized. Indeed, Mr. Kirwan was so much of a cabinet-philosopher, that he seems scarcely ever to have examined a rock *in situ*; and of the geology of the interesting country surrounding the place of his residence, (Dublin,) he was profoundly ignorant.

Mr. Gisborne's second position, that the fractures and dislocations of the strata which may be traced in almost every part of the globe were caused by the 'penal deluge,' or what is more commonly called Noah's flood, appears to rest on no firmer ground than the preceding; since the most direct evidence, that the nature of the subject can afford, exists to shew that those mighty convulsions which raised our present continents from the sea, or which changed the bed of the ocean and laid them dry, took place before the creation of man, and the present existing species of land-animals. Moreover, the marine-remains yet observable in the strata, on the summits of the highest mountains, were not brought there by a sudden inundation, but the animals lived and perished in the situations in which their remains now occur. To make this fact better understood, let us suppose a series of volumes, laid over each other, to represent the different rock-formations of the outer part of the globe; that each volume is filled with plates or drawings of different genera and species of marine-animals, or of certain aquatic vegetables, which drawings may represent the different strata in each formation: that each plate were to contain distinct species of animals, not to be found in the other volumes, and the volume including the plates of vegetables to contain no plates of any species of marine animals; that the under volume was filled exclusively with the remains of certain zoophytes and shell-fish, while the middle volumes contained plates of vertebrated animals, or such as have a brain and spinal marrow; and that only in the very uppermost volume and in the topmost leaves the plates of terrestrial quadrupeds occurred; — supposing, we say, such an arrangement, we shall have no unapt representation of the actual condition of the strata. Now the facts which we have stated prove that the strata were formed in succession at different periods; that each stratum, in which animal remains are discovered, was once the uppermost covering of the globe; and that the animals, of which the remains are there imbedded, lived and perished where they are now found. The different genera and species are not heaped together in confusion, as they would have been if they had been brought into their

present situations by a deluge. Certain species frequently occur exclusively in a stratum, throughout an extent of many hundred square miles, without any intermixture with the fossil species that are found in the strata above, or below; and the strata containing vegetable remains scarcely ever disclose any marine shells, though the latter abound in the strata beneath them.

It is farther to be observed that no fossil-remains of viviparous land-animals appear, except in alluvial soil, or in the very uppermost covering of the globe; and, lastly, neither in the under nor in the upper strata, nor in antient alluvial ground, have the remains of the human species been hitherto discovered.* The lower rock-formations, containing zoophytes and shell-fish, are sometimes pushed up, and form the summits of lofty mountains: but the marine organic remains which they contain are of an origin long antecedent to the alluvial soil, or the upper strata. These facts prove that the changes, to which Mr. Gisborne refers, were prior to the creation of man, and therefore could not be produced by the indignation of the Deity for the moral transgression of our species. The proofs of the 'penal deluge,' if they are to be sought in geology, may with greater probability be found in changes of a more recent date; in the marine shells which cover the surface of the plains in many parts of Asia; in the assemblage of the bones of carnivorous animals in the caverns of Germany; and in other phænomena which indicate that our present continents have suddenly been covered by the ocean at no very remote period. In our account of the succession of animal-remains in the strata, we shall, as in the former instance, be supported by every geologist of the present day who is practically acquainted with the subject.

It is a highly interesting fact that few if any of the fossil-animals, whether marine or terrestrial, are similar to existing species; even the fossil-Elephant, of which the remains occur so abundantly in Europe, belonged to a species now extinct: one of them, discovered imbedded in ice, having had a coat of thick hair, and a mane; and the general osteology, and the structure of the teeth, differ from that of living elephants. The total absence of fossil human remains offers a farther proof that, when these great revolutions took place, man was not a tenant of the globe. The successive epochs, called by

* The human skeleton from Guadalupe, now at the British Museum, is embedded in calcareous sand, recently agglutinated. A similar formation of sand-stone from loose sand exists on the north coast of Cornwall, near Padstow.

Moses *days*, appear to have been changes or revolutions by which the earth was progressively advancing to a state suited for more perfect orders of animals, and lastly for man; and that these epochs could not mean, literally, periods of twenty-four hours, is obvious from the circumstance that they are mentioned previously to the creation of the sun. In the *Institutes of Menu*, translated by Sir William Jones, the account of the creation is given in nearly the same manner as in the first chapter of *Genesis*, with this remarkable exception; that the word *time* is substituted for *day*, thus; "The first *time*, God said, Let there be light," &c. With this change, the account corresponds with existing phænomena; and we can see no more reason why the word *day* should be taken literally, than the words *hands*, *eyes*, or *ears*, when applied to the Supreme Being by the same writer. As the utmost efforts of the Inquisition could not stop the motion of the earth in the fifteenth century, so neither can the prayers or the frowns of bigots, in the present day, remove the remains of extinct species and genera of animals from the strata in which they are separately imbedded; nor can they prevent the mind from drawing certain inferences from the data which these facts offer to our notice. It is, then, unwise to press for a literal interpretation of certain words, when another may be given that is more accordant with the legitimate deductions from existing phænomena.

That Mr. Gisborne has completely failed in establishing the two leading positions in his '*Natural Theology*,' we are compelled to assert; and this failure arises, we conceive, from inattention to the maxim of a celebrated dignitary in the church. It is not, indeed, one of those maxims that require any very extraordinary vigour of intellect to discover, and it might readily have been promulgated without the aid of Dean Swift: but, as it appears in this instance entirely to have escaped Mr. Gisborne's notice, it may be proper to quote it. "A man," says Swift, "will always write a better book if he happen to be so lucky as to know something of his subject." We feel the fullest conviction that Mr. G. has too high a value for truth to defend any doctrine by a wilful misrepresentation of facts: but, had he possessed a due knowledge of geology, he must have been aware that the marine organic remains, or what he calls the reliques of the ocean, which occur on the summits of mountains, are not piled up as he represents by a deluge, but are firmly imbedded in strata of solid lime-stone, that have once formed the bed of the ocean; and that the same strata, containing the same remains, are visible in other situations many hundred yards below the surface, covered by other beds, which contain remains of very different

species of animals. We have not, moreover, any reason to believe that the elephants, of which the remains are found in Europe, were (as he states) brought from India by a deluge, because no elephants of the same species are now existing in India or elsewhere.

Mr. Gisborne delivers, at length, his opinion that the devastations occasioned by earthquakes and volcanoes are indications that man is in a state of transgression, and has lost the original favour of the Creator. He farther traces proofs of the fall of man in the position of beds of coal and metallic veins. On this subject, he gives one chapter, which he calls 'Conclusions reducible from the Nature and Position of the Mineral Contents of the Earth.' Here, abandoning his argument that the present world was torn to pieces at the deluge for the transgression of man, he supposes that mineral veins were placed in their actual position at the creation, from the foreknowledge which the Creator had that man would fall into a state of transgression.* The remaining part of the volume contains arguments chiefly of a moral nature, to prove that man is in a state of probation and suffering. The author appears to have taken the same ground with Butler in his "Analogy," and this part of the work may be read with edification by Christians of every denomination.

On the whole, we cannot but deem Mr. Gisborne a most injudicious advocate for the great truths of natural theology; for we fear it will prove that few works have emanated from any English divine, which will give more satisfaction to the opponents of both natural and revealed religion than the present volume. Nothing has a more powerful tendency to indispose the mind for the reception of any doctrine, however true or important, than to see it defended by arguments founded on erroneous data. We regard the conclusions of natural theology, when legitimately deduced from existing phenomena, as the most valuable truths which the human mind is capable of attaining by its own efforts; appealing as they do to the senses, to the understanding, and to the best affections of our nature. We have often regretted, therefore, that greater attention is not paid to the developement of these truths in the early instruction of youth, since they are of a description to be comprehended by young persons, when clearly stated and confirmed by the observation of facts; and, by these means, we should be more likely to lay the foundation of rational piety, than by loading their memories with dogmas which at that period of

* The present position of the strata of coal and of metallic veins is, in many instances, obviously the result of the great fractures and convulsions which Mr. Gisborne supposes to have taken place at the deluge.

life must be utterly incomprehensible. With these feelings, we lament that so worthy a man and so respectable a writer, as the author of the present volume, should have published a work which, we think, will never make one convert to Christianity, though it may prejudice some minds against the truths of our religion as they are derived both from nature and from Revelation.

ART. XII. *Brutus; or the Fall of Tarquin.* An Historical Tragedy, in Five Acts. By John Howard Payne. First represented at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane, December 3. 1818. 8vo. 3s. Rodwell, &c.

EVERY school-boy is acquainted with the impressive history of Lucius Junius Brutus; and, in the present age of education, every young female of a respectable station in society may be supposed to be equally familiar with it. In attending, therefore, to a composition founded on the events of his life, we cannot be required to introduce any detail of them for the purpose of recalling them to the minds of our readers. They will feel that the two grand incidents, the bursting forth of his concealed talents and his smothered revenge on the occasion of Lucretia's death, and the manifestation of his truly Roman virtue and self-control in the condemnation of his rebellious sons, must in course be made the basis of any drama which is formed on this portion of the Roman annals; and they will also perceive that the outrage on the incomparable Lucretia should be depicted with a delicate pencil, to fit it for being "bodied forth" in scenic representation.

All "play-goers" will at once be aware of the adaptation of the character and career of Junius Brutus to the talents of the great tragic actor of the present day, Mr. Kean; and they will perhaps agree with us in thinking that much, very much, of the success of any play now brought forwards on this subject will be referable to his commanding powers: as their absence, consequently, may be deemed one cause of the failure of former attempts of this kind. With all the interest that belongs to the fate of Lucretia, the incident out of which her death arose has unfortunately no novelty either in real or in dramatic occurrence, while (as we have just intimated) it is by no means free from difficulties and objections as a stage-event;—and the heroic conduct of Brutus, in his inexorable devotion of his sons, has in all ages been the object of varying opinion. Indeed, without adverting to the softer feelings of a woman's mind, no man, possessing the common sensations of his nature, can view a parent dooming his own progeny to death, when it was completely in his

his power to save them, and when his merciful decision was even demanded by his appalled countrymen, without finding that nature revolt at the act, even while he acknowledges the rectitude of the judge and extols the integrity of the patriot. It requires, therefore, we think, the extraordinary sway of Mr. Kean over an audience to make that audience permanently gratified by such a drama; at the same time that their continued crowding to its representation may, perhaps, be urged as a proof of the *strong mind* of the British public of the present day: since, while they participate in the agonies of the father, they must feel that they are equally paying full tribute to the victory of the hero. The introduction of this play, and their reception of it, remind us of the masterly and concise delineation of the story of Brutus, which Virgil has drawn in his *Æneis*: (vi. 817.)

" *Vis et Tarquinius reges, animamque superbam
Ultoris Bruti, fascesque videre receptos?
Consulis imperium hic primus, scevasque secures
Accipiet: natosque pater, nova bella moventes,
Ad pœnam pulchra pro libertate vocabit,
Infelix: utcunque ferent ea facta minores,
VINCET AMOR PATRIÆ, LAUDUMQUE IMMENSA CUPIDO.*"*

Mr. Payne observes, in his preface, that seven plays on this subject are already before the public: but 'only two have been thought capable of representation, and those two did not long retain possession of the stage.' He adds: 'in the present play, I have had no hesitation in adopting the *conceptions and language* of my predecessors, wherever they seemed likely to strengthen the plan which I had prescribed.' This is a very comprehensive though a very indefinite acknowledgement; and we have seen a number of letters on the subject in a newspaper, in which Mr. Payne is positively charged with having most extensively copied from a posthumous play of Mr. Cum-

* " Wilt thou behold the Tarquin kings? or view
Brutus, to vengeance and to freedom true?
Who, Rome's first consul, in his awful hand
Shall bear the fasces of the new command.
Nor bear in vain: for as the sons conspire
To make new wars, the justice of the sire
Shall strike their crime, and stern in freedom's cause
With filial blood atone the offended laws.
Unhappy! but howe'er succeeding days
May give the deed to censure or to praise,
Yet shall it be transcendancy of soul:
His country's love, and glory's strong controul." *Stimmons.*
berland.

berland. We have not that play at hand to institute for ourselves a minute comparison: nor shall we enter into the various allegations and answers contained in that news-paper controversy. Enough remains established there, and enough is told in Mr. Payne's own admission, to shew that his play is not to be viewed as an original composition, independently of its *ready-made* plot and incidents; and even the inequality of its language shews its miscellaneous origin. 'We are not altogether disposed to concede to him the point which he subsequently asserts, that 'no assistance of other writers can be available without an effort *almost*, if not *altogether*, as laborious as original composition:'—for even an improvement (granting that it *is* an improvement) must extend to such a degree of alteration as to become almost a new creation, before it can claim the merit due to a new creation. We will grant, however, that Mr. P. has evinced a degree of judgment, dramatic conception, and power of poetic expression, which is certainly creditable to him; and he seems to have designed his tragedy for Mr. *Kean* with undeviating attention: for Brutus is every where and every thing, and the rest of the characters are comparatively insignificant. Even Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia, insufficiently commands our respect and our pity. So far, however, this is all *in keeping*: Brutus is the intended hero of the piece; and he maintains undivided pre-eminence throughout.

With regard to incidents, the writer has followed the received records of history in all essential particulars: but he has introduced only one of the sons of Brutus, viz. Titus; and he has made that son's desertion of his father to originate rather in his unconquerable love for Tarquinia, daughter of the tyrant, and in their mutually plighted faith, than in the difference of political feeling. The tragic fate of Lucretia is properly represented with comparative brevity, as leading to still more important events; and the difficulty of depicting it is, on the whole, managed with dexterity.

In the third act, Brutus is seen, farther evolving his long disguised character and views:

' *The Capitol. Equestrian Statue of TARQUINIUS SUPERBUS. Night. Thunder and Lightning.*

' *Enter BRUTUS.*

' *Br. (alone)* Slumber forsakes me, and I court the horrors
Which night and tempest swell on every side.
Launch forth thy thunders, capitolian Jove!
Put fire into the languid souls of men,
Let loose thy ministers of wrath amongst them
And crush the vile oppressor! Strike him down,
Ye lightnings! Lay his trophies in the dust!

(*Storm increases*)
Ha!

Ha! this is well! — flash, ye blue forked fires!
Loud-bursting thunders, roar! and tremble, Earth!

*A violent crash of thunder, and the statue of Tarquin, struck
by a flash, is shatter'd to pieces.*

What! fallen at last, proud idol! struck to earth!
I thank you, gods! I thank you! When you point
Your shafts at human pride, it is not chance,
'Tis wisdom levels the commission'd blow.

But I — a thing of no account — a slave —

I to your forked lightnings bare my bosom

In vain — for what's a slave? a dastard slave?

A fool, a Brutus? (*Storm increases.*) Hark! the storm rides on!

The scolding winds drive through the clattering rain,

And loudly screams the haggard witch of night.

Strange hopes possess my soul. My thoughts grow wild;

Engender with the scene, and pant for action.

With your leave, majesty, I'll sit beside you.

(*Sits on a fragment of the statue.*)

Oh, for a cause! A cause, ye mighty gods!

Shortly afterward, this cause, this irresistible stimulus, is furnished by the entrance and the avowed crime of Sextus Tarquinius. Brutus then bursts forth; bids Sextus tremble at the omen of his father's statue, 'unhors'd and headless;' and departs, exclaiming,

'The blow is struck. —

To the moon, folly! Vengeance, I embrace thee!

Act V. Titus and Tarquinia have been brought in as prisoners, and the latter pleads for the former as having been actuated by gratitude and love.

'I preserv'd his life —

Who shall condemn him for protecting mine?

'Br. We try the crime; the motive, Heaven will judge.

My honour he hath stabb'd — I pardon that.

He hath done more — he hath betray'd his country.

That is a crime which every honest heart

That beats for freedom, every Roman feels,

And the full stream of Justice must have way.

'Tar. Because thy soul was never sway'd by love,
Canst thou not credit what his bosom felt?

'Br. I can believe that beauty such as thine

May spread a thousand fascinating snares

To lure the wavering and confound the weak;

But what is honour, which a sigh can shake?

What is his virtue, whom a tear can melt?

Truth, — valour, — justice, — constancy of soul, —

These are the attributes of manly natures: —

Be woman e'er so beauteous, man was made

For nobler uses than to be her slave.'

The

The last sad scene is that in which the dramatist should in course concentrate all his powers. Our readers shall see how well Mr. Payne has here exerted himself: those who have also witnessed Mr. Kean's almost wonderful acting in it will, perhaps, think that *he* cannot be exceeded; and they will consequently be led to pass even a more favourable judgment on the poet, than those will award who merely peruse the printed passages:

' Exterior of the Temple of MARS. Senators, Citizens, COLLATINUS, LUCRETIVS, discovered. At the left of the Stage a Tribunal, with a Consular Chair upon it. BRUTUS enters, followed by VALERIUS; — he bows as he passes, and ascends the Tribunal.

' Br. Romans, the blood which hath been shed this day
Hath been shed wisely. Traitors who conspire
Against mature societies, may urge
Their acts as bold and daring; and tho' villains,
Yet they are manly villains — But to stab
The cradled innocent, as these have done, —
To strike their country in the mother-pangs
Of struggling child-birth, and direct the dagger
To freedom's infant throat, — is a deed so black,
That my foil'd tongue refuses it a name. [A pause.]
There is one criminal still left for judgment.
Let him approach.

TITUS is brought in by the LICTORS, with their axes turned edgeways towards him.

Pris — on — er —

The voice of BRUTUS falters and is choaked, and he exclaims with violent emotion,

Romans! forgive this agony of grief —
My heart is bursting — Nature must have way —
I will perform all that a Roman should —
I cannot feel less than a father ought!

He becomes more calm. Gives a signal to the LICTORS to fall back, and advances from the Judgment-seat to the front of the Stage, on a line with his Son.

Well, Titus, speak — how is it with thee now?
Tell me, my son, art thou prepar'd to die?

' Ti. Father, I call the powers of heaven to witness
Titus dares die, if so you have decreed.
The gods will have it so.

' Br. They will, my Titus:
Nor heav'n, nor earth, can have it otherwise.
The violated genius of thy country
Rears its sad head and passes sentence on thee!
It seems as if thy fate were pre-ordain'd
To fix the reeling spirits of the people,
And settle the loose liberty of Rome.
'Tis fix'd; — oh, therefore, let not fancy cheat thee:

So fix'd thy death, that 'tis not in the power
Of mortal man to save thee from the axe.

' *Ti.* The axe! — Oh heaven! — Then must I fall so basely?

What, shall I perish like a common felon?

' *Br.* How else do traitors suffer? — Nay, Titus, more —

I must myself ascend yon sad tribunal,

And there behold thee meet this shame of death, —

With all thy hopes and all thy youth upon thee, —

See thy head taken by the common axe, —

All, if the gods can hold me to my purpose, —

Without a groan, without one pitying tear.

' *Ti.* Die like a felon? — Ha! a common felon! —

But I deserve it all: — Yet here I fail: —

This ignominy quite unmans me!

Oh, Brutus, Brutus! Must I call you father,

Yet have no token of your tenderness,

No sign of mercy? Not even leave to fall

As noble Romans fall, by my own sword?

Father, why should you make my heart suspect

That all your late compassion was dissembled?

How can I think that you did ever love me?

' *Br.* Think that I love thee by my present passion,

By these unmanly tears, these earthquakes here,

These sighs that strain the very strings of life, —

Let these convince you that no other cause

Could force a father thus to wrong his nature.

' *Ti.* Oh, hold, thou violated majesty!

I now submit with calmness to my fate.

Come forth, ye executioners of justice —

Come, take my life, — and give it to my country!

' *Br.* Embrace thy wretched father. May the gods

Arm thee with patience in this awful hour!

The sov'reign magistrate of injur'd Rome

Bound by his high authority, condemns

A crime, thy father's bleeding heart forgives.

Go — meet thy death with a more manly courage

Than grief now suffers me to shew in parting,

And, while she punishes, let Rome admire thee!

No more. Farewell! Eternally farewell! —

' *Ti.* Oh, Brutus! Oh, my father! —

' *Br.* What would'st thou say, my son?

' *Ti.* Wilt thou forgive me? — Don't forget Tarquinia

When I shall be no more.

' *Br.* Leave her to my care.

' *Ti.* Farewell, for ever!

' *Br.* For ever.

[*Brutus re-ascends the Tribunal.*

Lictors, attend! — conduct your prisoner forth!

' *Val.* (*Rapidly and anxiously.*) Whither!

All the characters bend forward in great anxiety.

' *Br.* To death! — (*All start.*) When you do reach the spot

My

ceeded through Paris to Geneva, and having resided long enough in that neighbourhood to view the vicinity of Mont Blanc, with the abrupt and mountainous banks of the lake in the direction of Evian and Meillerie : as well as the influx of the Rhone, which is here a turbid stream, but beautifully transparent on leaving the lake. This sketch, short as it is, appears as the composition of *three writers* ; a lady being the author of the first and larger part, and her husband figuring in the second tour ; while a travelling companion contributes a couple of epistles, and concludes by a poetical essay on Mont Blanc, which will scarcely rank him with the Scotts and Byrons of the age.

Art. 15. *Letters during a Tour through some Parts of France, Savoy, Switzerland, Germany, and the Netherlands*, in the Summer of 1817. By Thomas Raffles, A.M. 12mo. pp. 348. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

This is a narrative of wider compass and more detail than the preceding : containing an account of Paris and of the journey by way of Burgundy to Geneva, followed by a description of the Palais, of the route from Lausanne to Berne and Bâle, and finally of Strasburg, Mentz, Coblenz, and Liege. Mr. R. is a true Englishman, determined to give a resolute preference to the customs of his own country over those of our continental neighbours ; and considering our inferiority in point of magnificent edifices and sublime scenery as more than compensated by our comforts, our regular habits, and, above all, our more serious impressions of religion. His tour was performed in 1817, in company with his respectable relative, Sir T. Raffles, who is known to the public by his work on Java ; and whose rank secured to his companions a ready access to all that claimed their inspection in the different places through which they passed. Dieppe, Rouen, Geneva, Lausanne, Berne, and Frankfort, are all described with considerable minuteness, though by no means with sufficient accuracy : the town-library of Rouen being at least tripled in size when said to contain 70,000 volumes ; and Frankfort being by no means intitled to the epithet of 'the chief commercial city of the Continent, to which merchants from all parts of Europe and Asia send agents to transact business at its annual fair.' We must condemn also the high-flown language in which Mr. R. anathematizes the *Palais Royal*, not as unmerited by that abyss of corruption, but as unsuitable to the plain and unadorned style of a travelling journal ; — the style which would best accord with the author's profession of diffidence in his prefatory notice.

We would recommend, if the book should come to a second edition, the correction of sundry typographical errors ; such as (p. 24.) *Nantes* for *Mantes* ; *Rigney* for *Rosni*, &c. ; also of various mistakes, such as (p. 9.) *Rome* for *Naples*, which cannot in due conscience be laid to the charge of the printer. One of the most interesting passages is the account of the ascent to Montanvert in the vicinity of Mont Blanc.

Art. 16. *The Traveller's Guide down the Rhine* : exhibiting the Course of that River from Schaffhausen to Holland, and describing

scribing the Moselle from Coblenz to Treves. With an Account of the Cities, Towns, Villages, Prospects, &c. in their Vicinity, and of the Places where there are Mineral Springs; together with a Description of the various Routes, Modes of Conveyance, Inns, Coins, &c. By A. Schreiber, Historiographer to the Grand Duke of Baden. With a Map of the Rhine from Schaffhausen to Wesel; and of the Moselle from Coblenz to Treves. 12mo. pp. 400. 8s. bound. Leigh. 1818.

Much more matter is contained in this closely printed volume than most works of the kind afford, it being written with all the minuteness and accuracy of the German school. The author begins from the frontier of Swisserland, and describes every town, or even remarkable village, on both sides of the river all the way to Cologne and Cleves; enumerating not only the principal buildings of each town, such as castles, churches, theatres, and hospitals, but specifying also the inns, public schools, baths,—in short, every thing worth the notice of an inquisitive traveller. With this overflow of local minutiae, the book is fitted not for a continued perusal, but, like our Paterson and Carey, for an occasional reference when a person is desirous of information about a particular place. Towards the close is given a list of post-roads in the interior of Germany, viz. from Frankfort to Leipsic; from Augsburg to Vienna; from Dresden to Berlin, &c.; and to the whole is added an index of names, which makes the work serve the purpose of a local gazetteer.

Art. 17. *A Picturesque Tour through France, Switzerland, on the Banks of the Rhine, and through Part of the Netherlands*: in the Year 1816. 8vo. pp. 394. 12s. Boards. Mawman.

The ground already trodden by so many of our travellers is here again traversed without much deviation, except in Dauphiné and Provence; where the writer proceeded more to the southward than the usual route, and presents his reader with accounts of Nîmes, Marseilles, and Grenoble. Marseilles is, with the exception of Paris, the finest city in France, and much superior to Lyons: the streets every where, except in the old town, are regular and wide; and the surrounding country is populous and pleasant. Compared with Liverpool, Marseilles is in point of building much superior: but it falls far below the British sea-port in commercial activity, although possessed of nearly all the French trade to the Levant, and exhibiting along its streets and quays a curious mixture of French, Italians, Turks, Greeks, and Jews. Unluckily, most of the streets run in direct lines from north to south, and are thus more exposed to the intensity of the meridian sun than if they had extended from east to west. A more gratifying peculiarity of this town, as well as of Nîmes and Orange, is the preservation of Roman architecture in many of the door-ways and ornamental decorations; the brick-work being to all appearance two thousand years old. Even the common earthen utensils of the inhabitants, particularly in the villages, seem formed after the model of those of the antient Romans; and the French spoken in this southern province partakes evidently of the sound of the Italian.

The other parts of this volume are composed of an itinerary through France, a description of Switzerland, and a journey down the Rhine. Under the head of Paris is a long account of the *chef-d'œuvre* of painting and statuary; such as the Apollo Belvidere, the Transfiguration by Raphael, &c.; all of which the author had an opportunity of seeing in a previous tour. He does not, like the majority of travellers, adopt the epistolary form: but he assures his reader that his notes were taken on the spot, or at the end of each stage, in order that one series of imagery might not be suffered to obliterate another. We have remarked several errors, such as (p. 9.) the imaginary capture of a French king at the battle of Crecy: but on the whole the book is well written; and it may be said of it, as of other works of greater claim to repute, that, had it come earlier, it could not have failed to gain the attention of the public.

Art. 18. *Letters after a Tour through some Parts of France, Italy, Switzerland, and Germany*, in 1816: with incidental Reflections on some Topics connected with Religion. By John Sheppard. 8vo. pp. 372. 9s. Boards. Hamilton.

Although the course pursued in this tour embraced France, Switzerland, and the banks of the Rhine, it differed from the more usual track in comprehending a passage to Piedmont over Mount Cenis, and a visit to Genoa and Milan. Bonaparte, among other improvements for military purposes, made, about the year 1809, a road practicable for carriages by Mount Cenis; over which travellers had till then been conveyed in a sort of sedan-chair, borne by porters. The former road, or rather path, was considerably shorter, passing directly to the high part of the mountain, and descending through the defiles on the side of Piedmont; the new course is a zig-zag, laid out on a large scale, for the purpose of making both the ascent and the descent so gradual as to be accessible by carriages. Here, as at the Simplon and St. Gothard, the chief danger to the traveller is in Spring; when the great masses of snow and ice begin to be loosened, and are propelled by the occurrence even of a noise, or other slight cause, with great rapidity over the sides of the mountain. It sometimes happens (p. 46.) that a company of travellers may be borne down in the snowy mass, and extricated without material injury either to themselves or their horses.

On returning northwards from Lombardy, the author and his companions took the new road by the Simplon, leading from Domo D'Ossola in Piedmont across the Alpine range to Brieg in Switzerland; a distance of somewhat more than 40 miles, which may be performed in 10 or 12 hours with changes of horses, or in 15 hours with the same, allowing them an interval of rest. In his farther progress north, this traveller visited at Yverdun the school of the well known Pestalozzi, and found the number of pupils considerable; many of them from distant parts of Europe, and some even from America. The system has an affinity to those of Bell and Lancaster, but extends to the higher branches of education. Of its success with regard to the modern languages, the present author

author had the most satisfactory proof in an examination of the scholars. The instruction of the deaf and dumb, for which also a school is established at Yverduin, seems as successfully conducted as in London or Edinburgh. From this place, the tourist proceeded to Lucerne, Zurich, Stutgard, and Frankfort; ending the report of his peregrinations at Cologne and Aix la Chapelle. The substance of the book was taken from real letters, but the whole was put together after the completion of the tour; which admits of an occasional reference to printed works.

Art. 19. *Observations made during a Tour in 1816 and 1817 through that Part of the Netherlands which comprizes Ostend, Bruges, Ghent, Brussels, Malines, and Antwerp; with Remarks on the Works of Art in Carving, Painting, and Sculpture; and Enquiries into the present State of Agriculture, Political Economy, Literature, the Arts, Laws, Government, and Religion.* To which are added from the most authentic Information several original Anecdotes relative to the Battle of Waterloo, and the humane Conduct of the Inhabitants of the City of Brussels on that occasion. In a Series of Letters; by Henry Smithers, Lecturer on Historical Geography, and Author of "Affection," a Poem. 8vo. pp. 270. 7s. Boards. Printed at Brussels; and sold in London by Lackington and Co.

A title of such extraordinary length is hardly calculated to excite a favourable impression; and it must be admitted that Mr. S., *malgré* his capacity of lecturer, is no luminary in literary composition. His book contains descriptions of the six towns mentioned in the title, but no notice of other places in the kingdom, such as Louvain and Liege, or of the kindred provinces of Holland and Zealand. Of this omission, we are not much disposed to complain: but too great space is given to the early history of Belgium, to which it is impossible to do justice in the limits of so small a volume. A more interesting passage is the one appropriated (p. 100.) to the account of the existing constitution of the Netherlands: but there, as in other parts, the style is feeble, and the selection of materials is by no means made in the spirit of judicious discrimination. To these drawbacks are added the want of an index or table of contents; the occurrence of repeated errors in French names, such as *La Lycée*, *La Musée*, for *Le Lycée* and *Le Musée*; and almost innumerable faults of typography, which, with every allowance for the blunders of foreign printers, ought not to have appeared in pages revised by an Englishman. We allude to such errors as *Britains* for *Britons*, *statutę* for *statue*, *juge de pays* for *juge de paix*, &c. &c.

We are sorry to find that Mr. S., who from continued residence at Brussels must have had ample opportunities of information, concurs (p. 155.) in a complaint repeatedly made in the foreign journals, that among our countrymen expatriated in the Netherlands are several who do no credit to the national character; and who, having taken a hasty leave of their creditors at home, have had no scruple in contracting fresh obligations on the other side of the Channel.

Art. 20. *La Scava*, or some Account of an Excavation of a Roman Town on the Hill of Chatelet, in Champagne, between St. Dizier and Joinville, discovered in the Year 1772; to which is added a Journey to the Simplon by Lausanne, and to Mont Blanc through Geneva. By the Author of "Letters from Paris in 1791-2;" "the Praise of Paris in 1802;" "A slight Sketch in 1814;" "Two Tours in 1817." 8vo. pp. 140. 6s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

The Journey to the Simplon, described in the latter part of this little volume, is written by the author of the "Two Tours in 1817" reported in our Number for December in that year, and is intitled to no greater commendation than we bestowed on those imperfect sketches: but the first part of the book is very curious, containing a translation of an official report from a M. Grignon respecting the excavations made in 1772 in the small hill of Chatelet in Champagne, on the site of a Roman town, which appears to have been destroyed in the wars of Attila, and preserved, in part at least, by being covered with earth. The excavators proceeded under orders from the French government, and traced the remains of ninety houses, and eight small crypts or subterraneous chapels, with a number of cellars, cisterns, and wells. The streets were ascertained to have been regularly paved, and perfectly straight, but extending in width only from 15 to 20 feet: the pavement, where the stones were uneven, was cemented with river-pebbles, or gravel from the hill. The houses were oblong, and had their foundations placed on a bed of stones bound together with lime and calcareous cement: the subterraneous chapels, or crypts, belonged only to the better houses; they were all of nearly the same form, but of different dimensions; some only 7 feet by 8, others 9 by 15 in length and breadth: the descent to them was by stone stairs, and the light was admitted by two embrasures or openings.

After the houses and chapels, the principal objects of attention were the cisterns: these were, in width, from 6 to 8 feet; in depth from 15 to 18. The openings resembling wells were probably drains, as there are no springs in the hill, and water was found only in one of them; they were of a circular form, the deepest of all 55 feet: many fragments of beautiful pottery were found at the bottom of these openings, and had probably been thrown in there by the slaves to conceal their awkwardness from their masters.

Farther discoveries in this interesting investigation consisted of water-pipes made of wood, now entirely decayed, and of others bound with iron at regular intervals: also of medals, fragments of statues, goblets, spoons of various shapes, some oval and others circular, lamps, amulets, weighing scales, rings, pins, surgical instruments, and keys. The latter were partly of copper, partly of iron; the smallest were fastened to rings, and a number of them were like the keys of the present day. Wheels, nails, dishes, knives, scissors, and locks were also found; likewise many pieces of iron, which had escaped decay, by being covered with lime-stone. Other curious relics consisted of pieces of bone and ivory, particularly *styli* for writing on wax-tablets; their length was from three

to four inches. Of glass, also, many fragments occurred, and of a quality which shewed that the manufacture was by no means in its infancy.

These precious remains are preserved, we understand, in Paris, at the house of Abbé Tersan, a veteran of fourscore, who is occupied in getting a number of engravings made from them for general circulation. — We cannot conclude our notice of M. Grignon's memoir without regretting that the translation was not better executed; and that the inaccuracies and abruptness of the accompanying text, we mean the journey to the Simplon, form such a drawback on this curious record of Roman antiquities.

MATHEMATICS.

Art. 21. *The First Principles of Algebra*, designed for the Use of Students. By T. W. C. Edwards, M. A. 12mo. pp. 170. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

In a very short preface to this little treatise, we are informed that the author has, without omitting any thing necessary, endeavoured to blend perspicuity with brevity, and elegance with utility.

'The binomial theorem, the doctrine of imaginary quantities, and the use of logarithms, are *luminously explained*; and the method of equations is *beautiful beyond precedent*.

'To add to the value of the work, it is *richly* interspersed with appropriate examples for illustration or practice; and printed in a style of neatness seldom equalled, and of correctness never surpassed.'

This high encomium, passed by the author on his own performance, led us to turn with some impatience to those parts of the work which are particularly specified: but we cannot say that we were much surprized to find the praise somewhat exaggerated, or rather to perceive that it was wholly unmerited; and that, instead of being luminous and perspicuous, as we had been promised, these portions were ambiguous and defective. We expected to have seen at least some attempt to demonstrate the binomial theorem: but the necessity of demonstrations appears never to have entered into the contemplation of the author, who has throughout shewn more ingenuity in evading difficulties than in unravelling them. Thus, in the first rule for multiplying together algebraical quantities, he takes care to avoid all mention of that particular case which generally leads a learner into the greatest perplexity, viz. the sign produced by the product of two negatives, although his second example involves this very consideration. If we extract this rule, it will give as fair a specimen of the perspicuity and luminousness of the treatise as any that we can select.

Multiplication.

'The **PRODUCT** of any two quantites is found by taking either of them as oft as is indicated by the other, considering the affection of the multiplicand as the *primary* affection of the product, and that of the multiplier as the *ultimate* and *deciding* affection.

' Thus, were $+x$ given to be repeated $+a$ times, it would be
 $+x$ multiplicand.
 $+a$ multiplier.

$$(+ ax) = ax \text{ product ;}$$

and if $+x$ were given to be repeated $-a$ times, it would be
 $+x$ multiplicand.
 $-a$ multiplier.

$$- (+ ax) = - ax \text{ product.}$$

' So if $-x$ were proposed to be repeated $+a$ times, it would be
 $-x$ multiplicand.
 $+a$ multiplier.

$$+ (- ax) = - ax \text{ product.}$$

Hence, LIKE signs in the factors give an *affirmative* product ;
 and UNLIKE a *negative*.'

Mr. Edwards ought to have intitled this volume "*A Treatise of Algebra, with Mechanical Solutions,*" for such it is in fact: since he has not made any appeals to the reasoning faculties of his students: which we conceive to be a great defect, not only in this but in most elementary works of the present day. The whole object of authors is to make the processes easy; without considering that, by carrying this plan to excess, they divest mathematics of their most distinguishing characteristics, so floridly painted by Dr. Barrow. "The mathematics," he observed, "effectually exercise not vainly delude nor vexatiously torment studious minds with obscure subtleties, but plainly demonstrate every thing within their reach, draw certain conclusions, instruct by profitable rules, and unfold pleasant questions. These disciplines likewise ensure and corroborate the mind to a constant diligence in study; they wholly deliver us from a credulous simplicity, most strongly fortify us against the vanity of scepticism, effectually restrain us from a rash presumption, most easily incline us to a due assent, and perfectly subject us to the government of right reason."

We are afraid that very little of all this will be accomplished by the mere mechanical transformations of symbols, so luminously and perspicuously treated in the work before us, and in many similar performances, improperly called elementary treatises of mathematics.

HISTORY and BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 22. *Memoirs of the private Life of my Father*, by the Baroness de Stael-Holstein; to which are added *Miscellanies*, by M. Necker. 8vo. pp. 416. 12s. Boards. Colburn. 1818.

An old book, with a new title:—the work here announced with every appearance of novelty being only a translation of that which was published so long ago as 1804 by Madame de Staël, and reviewed at some length in our xlviii volume, under the title of *Manuscrits de M. Necker*. Unluckily, this deception is not alleviated by

by the character of the translation, which is hasty and inaccurate; the whole having been evidently *got up* on the spur of the moment, to satisfy the public curiosity when awakened by the notice of the death of Madame de Staël. The first part of the book is a narrative of the life of Necker, written in a strain of incessant panegyric, and wanting many of the recommendations of the subsequent works of Madame de S.; having been sent hastily to press in the very year of her father's death. To this biographical sketch is added a long series of "Miscellanies," or rather *memoranda*, found among the papers of the deceased minister; some of them containing good ideas, or hints, while others could appear *worthy of* the press only in the partial eyes of a daughter. The volume is concluded by a reprint of the essay on the corn-laws, published forty years ago; and by a short romance called "The fatal Consequence of a single Fault," which M. Necker seems to have composed in his old age merely as an amusement, and as an attempt to prove whether that mind, which had been so much exercised in financial detail, was capable of a flight in the regions of imagination.

Art. 23. *The History of Ireland*, from the earliest Ages to the Union. By the Reverend Samuel Burdy. 8vo. pp. 574. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cowie and Co.

Mr. B. has been formerly employed on researches into the history of Ireland; a passage in his prefatory notice mentioning that he was the author of a sketch on Irish transactions mentioned in our Review so long ago as June 1792. Various occupations have since intervened, and it was not until lately that he was enabled to complete his task, and give to the public a narrative of Irish transactions from the earliest ages.

An elegant and impartial history of Ireland has long been a literary desideratum; the recent publications on that country by Newenham, Wakefield, Dewar, and others, (all reported in our pages soon after their appearance,) having related chiefly to the statistics and manners of the country; and the valuable political tract by Hardy on the life of Lord Charlemont (*M. R.* Vol. lxxviii.) being restricted to a comparatively limited period. It would be too much to say that the present work supplies the blank which we have just regretted: but it is a plain and apparently impartial record of the facts of Irish history, in a modest form and unambitious style. A book comprizing such a variety of matter should not have been published without a succinct but clear table of contents in the beginning, and a copious index at the end: but, with regard to another point, we mean the space allotted to different periods of history, Mr. B. seems to have exercised a very proper discrimination between remote and recent ages, and to have accorded a due superiority to the latter. We wish that he had ventured to pass a more decided sentence on those fabulous legends which the vanity of his countrymen still connects with their early history, and with a pretended list of valorous monarchs beginning above ten centuries before the Christian æra. Another imperfection in this and in many books of narrative

is a deficient discrimination of the relative interest of events: many minor circumstances might have been passed over, and additional length given to the report of the greater transactions. — The volume is concluded by a few good remarks on the state of literature and public feeling in Ireland; in which Mr. B. expresses a coincidence with Mr. Wakefield, and others, that unfortunately little encouragement is given by the taste of the country to the exertions of the natives, and that an Irishman of ability must seek for reputation on our side of St. George's Channel.

Art. 24. *History of the Wars of the French Revolution*, from the breaking out of the War in 1792 to the Restoration of a General Peace in 1815; comprehending the Civil History of Great Britain and France during that Period. By Edward Baines. Embellished with Portraits of the most distinguished Characters of the Age, and illustrated by Maps, Plans, and Charts. In 2 Vols. 4to. pp. 540. and 596. 2l. 2s. Boards. Harper.

A very comprehensive and useful compilation; the work of a person who informs his readers that he had attained manhood at the beginning of the French Revolution, and has been since in an employment which prepared him for the laborious task of collecting materials from masses of state-papers, official dispatches, and periodical publications; in other words, Mr. B. is a master-printer, who has given considerable time to literary topics. — The first volume contains the transactions from 1792 to 1806; the second, from 1806 to 1815: but the title, 'Wars of the French Revolution,' seems not sufficiently comprehensive for a history that is as much civil as military, the plan of the work being to comprize every occurrence of interest in domestic as well as in foreign politics. The narrative is divided by campaigns, or other appropriate intervals, into a succession of chapters; the whole printed in double columns, and concluded by a double index: which, however, does not form a complete key to this large collection; and, in the case of a second edition, we should by all means recommend for each volume a full and clear table of contents.

In expressing commendation of this work, we must be understood to consider it not as a history but as a collection or compilation of historical materials; Mr. B. making no pretensions to originality in composition, or to the research of those documents, such as family MSS., that are not already before the world. The merits of it are confined therefore to a full and impartial exhibition of the substance of a vast mass of public papers, connected with the transactions of the twenty-five years of the French Revolution; the whole given in an unpretending form, and at a price greatly below the current cost of books in this expensive age. Ornaments, such as portraits, and manuscript-signatures, (Vol. ii. p. 302. 304. 306.) are perhaps too much multiplied; and a farther examination of indisputable materials will satisfy the writer that, in some passages, he has put too much faith in unauthenticated accounts. The proceedings of Marmont
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In April 1814 (Vol. ii. p. 336.) may be quoted as an example of his narrative differing in some respects from the official account published in the year afterward by the Marshal himself. We would advise also an abstinence from all attempts at flowery composition, as unacceptable to readers of good taste, and unsuitable to a work of which the grand recommendation lies not in decoration but in utility. The only book on the plan of the present, that has been published in late years, was Stephens's "Account of the Wars arising out of the French Revolution," (see our xliid volume,) but it came down merely to the peace of Amiens; and of course can in no degree supersede this large and valuable compilation.

Art. 25. *Memoirs of the Life and Doctrines of the late John Hunter*, Esq., Founder of the Hunterian Museum, at the Royal College of Surgeons in London. By Jos. Adams, M. D. &c. 8vo. pp. 284. 12s. 6d. Boards. Callow..

When we begin to peruse a memoir of Mr. Hunter, written so many years after his death, and consider how generally known are all the events of his life, we are naturally led to inquire what is the particular object of the author, and whether he has any new facts to communicate, or expects to throw any new light on those that are already public. The following is the reason which Dr. Adams alleges for having undertaken the office of biographer, by which the foregoing questions may be considered as in some degree answered. After having stated that we may expect 'the most scrupulous attention to truth,' and 'a sufficient knowledge of the character described, with a lively interest for his posthumous fame,' he proceeds;

'Such must be the apology for offering a life which has been already written by an enemy and by a friend, a relation and disciple; besides having appeared in various compilations of Biographies, Dictionaries, and Encyclopædias. But the only one entitled to any credit was written at an early period after the writer and the world had sustained so heavy a loss. At such a time, the relation of many events might appear less important from their supposed notoriety; nor was it possible to calculate how new and how interesting they might prove to the rising generation. Moreover, there are so many errors, even in the dates of Sir Everard Home, as can only be apologized for by the haste with which the Memoirs were put together. Let me plead, lastly, that a new edition of Mr. Hunter's great work has appeared, without a republication of his life.'

Perhaps the effect on the minds of most readers will be that which has been produced on ours, that Dr. Adams has diligently searched for information concerning the subject of his memoir; that he has pointed out some considerable inaccuracies in the dates of Sir Ev. Home, and has in short accomplished all that could reasonably be expected from him as a narrator of events: but the transactions of Mr. Hunter's life do not afford matter enough for a volume; and, although in the title-page we are led to expect a commentary or exposition of his leading or peculiar doctrines, we meet with little

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or nothing of this description which is sufficiently comprehensive, or established on such general principles as to support the interest of the performance.

Dr. Adams enters very fully into the merits of the unfortunate dissention that took place between the subject of his memoir and his brother, Dr. William Hunter; and, with a very commendable degree of candour, he imputes at least a considerable share of the original provocation to the former.

As far as we can judge by a perusal of the performance, and without actually entering into any laboured investigations, Dr. Adams appears to be correct in his facts, and has undoubtedly pointed out the errors of his predecessors, especially those of dates; to which, although perhaps not very important, it is the duty of a biographer to give every possible degree of accuracy. We have, however, observed one slight oversight; when, in relating Mr. Hunter's commencement of the office of surgeon's pupil at St. George's Hospital, in 1754, Dr. Adams observes, 'this step may appear superfluous for one, who, by the range of Chelsea and St. Bartholomew's Hospitals, had intercourse with Cheselden and Pott, the most distinguished men of their age;' whereas Cheselden died in the year 1752.

Since the publication of this volume, Dr. Adams has himself paid the great debt to nature. He was author of *Observations on Morbid Poison*,—*A Treatise on the Cancerous Breast*,—*An Inquiry into the Laws of Epidemics*,—and a *Philosophical Treatise on the Peculiarities of the Human Race*. The *Inquiry* is said to contain 'the first proposal ever published concerning Banks for Savings.'

EDUCATION.

Art. 26. *A View of the System of Education pursued in the Public Schools and University of Edinburgh*; with Remarks on the present State of learning in Scotland. By John Robertson, late of the University of Edinburgh. 8vo. pp. 36. Warren. 1818.

A brief outline of the plan of education followed in the schools and University of Edinburgh; containing little novelty, but explaining the more minute details with sufficient clearness and precision. The High School, by which is to be understood the great public school of Edinburgh conducted under the authority of the magistrates, generally contains 600 pupils, divided into five classes, varying from 100 to 130 in each, and conducted by four masters and a rector: each master carries his class through four years of study, after which the youth, if he continues at school, passes a year in the rector's or fifth class, before he goes to the University. Boarding-schools for boys are not common in Scotland; the pupils being almost all day-scholars. The fees at the High School of Edinburgh are 3l. a-year; in the Greek and Latin classes in the University, they are 3l. 8s. for each; the same nearly in the mathematical, natural philosophy, and logic classes: the law and medical classes are higher, and cost 4l. 9s. each; the fees in the divinity-classes are trifling, the professor being allowed a higher salary than his brother lecturers.

Mr. R. complains of the facility with which a medical diploma is granted to students who are frequently incapable of composing the thesis that bears their name: the natural and indeed unavoidable result of which is that these high sounding certificates have little weight with people of intelligence. The class-fees for a medical course, and the expence of graduating, amount together to about 60 guineas.

Art. 27. *Italian and English Exercise-Book*, with appropriate Grammatical Rules to each Theme, by W. Grimani, Professor of the Italian Language. 12mo. pp. 400. 10s. 6d. Boards. Berthoud, &c. 1818.

About eighteen years ago, in the xxxiii^d volume of our New Series, p. 308., we lent our favourable testimony to the *Italian Conversations* of this author. The present publication appears to be conducted with the same degree of care and considerate judgment; and it may, we doubt not, greatly benefit the student, whose patience or phlegm will enable him to submit to the course of exercises which it prescribes. Habits of extensive reading, however, and especially attempts at versions of interesting passages, selected from various authors, may generally suffice to meet the exigences of the British scholar.

Art. 28. *Italian Extracts*; being an extensive Selection from the best Classic and Modern Italian Authors; preceded by a copious Vocabulary; with Familiar Phrases and Dialogues. Intended as a Supplement to Gaglianani's Grammar and Exercises. By the Editor, Antonio Montucci, Sanese, LL.D. The Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 371. 9s. Boards. Boosey and Sons. 1818.

For an account of the first edition of this performance, we have to refer our readers to the lii^d volume of our New Series, p. 320. The Italian scholar will duly appreciate the improvements of this new impression, though he may not participate in the plenitude of the author's indignation at some of the labourers in the same vineyard; nor in his ludicrous contempt of the *poor living language* of Italy. The Doctor assigns the two following reasons for the present *limitation* of his plan: 'The first reason is, that the work has grown already to such a bulk, as not to admit of those ample materials first intended for publication in this Supplement. In the second place, I have already conceived the idea of putting to press a *thick volume of elegant Italian Extracts*, of the size and type of the English volumes, with a similar title, where [in which] I shall collect the most beautiful passages, taken from the classical and eminent Italian poets and prose-writers of all ages. A very good collection of the kind was published several years ago in London; but its enormous price has always been a great hindrance to its universal circulation, and its *extreme scarcity* has now rendered its purchase almost impossible, even to the most opulent.' We trust that this intended publication will meet with all the encouragement which it merits, and that it will agreeably supply one of the *desiderata* in modern literature.

POETRY and the DRAMA.

Art. 29. *Claremont*, a Poem. By Thomas Harral. Second Edition. 4to. pp. 16. Wilson. 1818.

Mr. Harral dreams, and sees Claremont and all its beauties, and its late happy royal inhabitants, under the varying aspects of the different seasons; and again he dreams, and beholds the lightning of the autumnal storm shatter the stately oak, and deal the deadly blow on the illustrious female whom it sheltered. In this way, if we may so express ourselves, he has *typified* the death of the lamented Princess Charlotte; and in strains of blank verse which, though not invulnerable to criticism, are far from being the worst that we occasionally encounter.

The beauty of Claremont in the Spring is thus depicted :

‘ Claremont, thy woods and groves, thy hills and vales,
Thy gay parterres, thy ever-verdant lawns!
Thy stately mansion, with its rich demesne,
The seat of royal worth, and wedded love —
Of Britain’s pride, and Britain’s fondest hope —
Stood full before my eye. ’Twas Nature’s time
Of mirth, and love, and warm delight—the Spring —
When health and music float on ev’ry gale;
When all is fresh and joyous to the sense; —
When circulates the blood in fuller streams;
When youthful being owns a livelier thrill! —
Blithe was the note that burst from ev’ry spray!
Blithe the response from each fond warbler there!
The bounding deer *sprang frolic* o’er the plain;
The horse, loud neighing, snuff’d the charter’d breeze.’

The consequences of the storm are shadowed forth in these lines :

‘ Rapid, as thought’s transition, burst the storm;
The lurid lightning glar’d; the thunder roll’d;
Darkness and desolation roam’d abroad;
The night-bird scream’d; the troubled watch-dog howl’d;
And Nature, shudd’ring, in convulsion writh’d —
Shelter’d that ancient Oak the princely pair?
Ah, no! I saw them flee! The lightning’s flash
Disclos’d the dire event! Heaven’s fiercest bolt
Had struck the dear belov’d one to the earth,
And all that erst was gen’rous, kind, and good,
And all that erst was lovely, breath’d no more!’

Art. 30. *The Green Man*: a Comedy, in Three Acts. Performed at the Theatre Royal, Haymarket. From the French of MM. D’Aubigny et Poujol. By Richard Jones, of the Theatres Royal, Covent Garden and Haymarket. 8vo. 3s. Fearman. 1818.

The materials for the English stage, as well as for the English toilette, have of late been too frequently borrowed from our Gallic neighbours; and the extravagance of our dress and of our dramas shews how little taste we have generally exercised in the adaptation of them. The above piece, however, though stated to

be of a French family, has few features in unison with its kindred; and we suspect that the original *stirps* of the hero will be found in our Goldsmith's Mr. Burchell. There is nothing French about a character who introduces, nay intrudes, himself into a strange family, and bluntly tells unpleasant, however wholesome, truths; fearlessly offending his host and his family by pressing too pointedly home what he calls his 'plain facts.' The character as it stands is decidedly English; and Mr. Jones (with whose comic talent we have been frequently amused) has done himself credit by the ability with which he has disentangled the play from its French garniture, and adapted the whole to the London stage. It is a little out of keeping, however, when he makes a man, whose influence depends on the respect which he excites, apply so vulgar a term as "*bow window*" to a person's protuberance of stomach; and we think that the characters of *Major Dumpling* and *Captain Bibber* might have been omitted, or have had others substituted for them, with considerable advantage to the general effect. A very delicate hand is required to render *palatable* the humour which is derived from excess in eating and drinking.

Art. 31. *The Rendezvous*: an Operetta, in One Act. First performed at the Theatre Royal, English Opera, Sept. 21. 1818. By Richard Ayton. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Fearman.

We presume that the publication of *any* dramatic work *pays*, or we should not otherwise perpetually have to read pieces, which, though they obtain an ephemeral popularity on the stage by the aid of the painter and the musician, or by the exertions of the performers, have not the slightest requisite for affording a moment's entertainment in the closet. The present was, perhaps, an amusing trifle at the theatre, as a summer-vehicle for music: but surely the paper and the print might have been spared.

Art. 32. *Replies to the Letters of The Fudge Family in Paris*, edited by Thomas Brown, Esq. 12mo. pp. 168. 7s. Boards. Pinnock and Maunder. 1818.

The printer of this work seems to be a more humorous man than the author. If all the passages that appear in *italic* are to be read as flashes of wit and merriment, the book must be accounted the most entertaining production of the age:—but alas! were *only* its real wit and humour printed with that type, the compositor would not have had much trouble in the arrangement.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 33. *Attributes of Satan*. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1818.

We have been so often alarmed in our boyish days by marvellous stories of the great personage whose name appears in the title-page of this work, and have so often contemplated him in every form of horror which the imagination can conceive, from an old man with large horns, swinging tail, and cloven feet, to a roaring lion or a fiery serpent, that we were glad to find this author assuring us that *ubiquity* is not one of the attributes of Satan. As, therefore, this terrific demon, however multiform he may be, cannot be in more than one place at the same time, and as there are so many places not only in this planet but in others, in

in which the excursive imagination of that sublime theologian Dr. Chalmers has ranged with so much ecstasy, and in which his Satanic majesty's delight in doing mischief may be gratified, we hope that we shall not be so much startled as heretofore, at the apprehension of experiencing his intrusion in our solitary walks in dark woods, or during our musings at the solemn hour of midnight, when the lights burn dim and the step of the cloven foot is doubly horrible! 'I shall say of Satan,' observes the author, p. 31, 'that as he is not endowed with the attributes of omnipresence, he cannot be the instrument of all the mischief imputed to him, not that he is ever known to be averse from evil, but because more takes place in the world than he can possibly commit.' Since, however, he can be only in one place at one time, — and as numerous crimes are perpetually perpetrating in different places at the same time, — and as all these said crimes are laid to the charge of his said Satanic majesty, or are directly imputed to his instigation, — we think that he might fairly institute a prosecution for libel against his numerous traducers in our courts of justice, and appeal to the book before us for proof of his total deficiency in the attribute of ubiquity or omnipresence. In course, he might shew that more enormities were committed without than with his interposition; and that his presence is not an essential accessory to any description of profligacy and transgression. What damages might be awarded for such a mass of false and malicious charges, it is not our province to foretell: but the learned judge, who may preside at the trial, will no doubt in this, as in other cases of libel, direct the jury to *give the Devil his due*.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Is *Atalpa*, whomsoever this personage may be, yet to be informed that we never accept anonymous communications? — a declaration which we have made so often, that we should suppose it impossible for any reader of the M. R. to be ignorant of it.

We know nothing of the work mentioned by *Amicus*, though he seems to be astonished that it has hitherto escaped notice, and to be unmindful of the myriads of publications which a few months produce in London.

M. Duffie's letter is received, and we have his books on our table, but he appears to be somewhat in the predicament of *Amicus*. Indeed, the self-love of authors is perhaps the most *overcoming* species of that passion. We will, however, "*try what we can do for him*:" but we implore his patience!

* * The APPENDIX to Vol. lxxxvii. of the M. R. is published with this Number, and contains a great variety of interesting FOREIGN ARTICLES; with the *Title*, *Contents*, and *Index*.

☞ The GENERAL INDEX to eighty-one Volumes of the *New Series* of the Monthly Review is ready for delivery to subscribers, (who are requested to send to Pall Mall for their copies,) in two large vols. 8vo. price 2l. 2s.; and to non-subscribers at 2l. 12s. 6d.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For F E B R U A R Y, 1819.

ART. I. *Narrative of a Journey in the Interior of China, and of a Voyage to and from that Country, in the Years 1816 and 1817; containing an Account of the most interesting Transactions of Lord Amherst's Embassy to the Court of Peking, and Observations on the Countries which it visited. By Clarke Abel, F.L.S. and Member of the Geological Society, Chief Medical Officer and Naturalist of the Embassy. 4to. pp. 420. With many Plates. 3l. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.*

THE extraordinary celerity, with which Mr. Ellis dispatched his quarto volume respecting the late embassy to China, set all competition of speed at defiance.* That gentleman was the *Eclipse* of travel-writers; and the facility afforded to him, by publishing his work in the form of a journal, must have rendered hopeless the attempt to keep pace with him by any person who re-arranged his ideas previously to the expression of them on paper. In ordinary cases, therefore, Mr. Abel's volume would probably not have appeared so dilatory as it now undoubtedly does: but we fear that, although it is the better written book of the two, it will be the least read; the majority of the public having been already informed generally with regard to some of its most material contents. We feel, nevertheless, that it is far too respectable a work to be passed by us with slight attention; and, as the outline of the proceedings of the embassy has been already traced in our pages, we will take notice of such parts of the present narrative as may even still lay a fair claim to novelty, without either pursuing the route or detailing the incidents of the expedition.

Mr. Abel's original appointment was simply that of first medical officer in the embassy: but to this, through the recommendation of Sir Joseph Banks, was afterward added that of naturalist. An apparatus for scientific research, and skilful coadjutors, were then afforded; and on such untrodden ground as China he promised himself a rich harvest of bo-

* See Review for February 1818, Vol. lxxxv.
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tanical acquisitions. Such expectations were not, indeed, founded on weak presumptions, for the gardener sent from Kew, whose particular province it was to collect and preserve seeds, placed three hundred packages, many consisting of plants of undescribed *genera*, and by far the greater number of unknown *species*, in Mr. Abel's hands on leaving China. This valuable collection, however, lies some fathoms deep in the Straits of Gaspar; where nearly every thing that might have advanced the cause of general science, which was collected in this luckless expedition, is also imbedded in the pitiless ocean.

It seems probable that it was the primary intention of the author to avail himself of the materials obtained by his industry as a naturalist, more than of those which were common to all his fellow-travellers, in writing the present volume; and, had such been the event, the relation of the late embassy, in the combined accounts of Mr. Abel and Mr. Ellis, would have been very complete: neither would have been deficient, and neither would have been superfluous. We have already stated the causes which precluded such an accomplishment: yet still we perceive a much nearer approach to it in this volume, than such unfortunate circumstances would lead the reader to expect. Various geological and botanical notices of China are preserved; Mr. Abel having presented Sir George Staunton with several plants from that country, and Captain Hall with specimens of rock, previously to the loss of the *Alceste*; and from these sources, sparing but still acceptable, some scientific relics are offered to us. A collection of Zoophytes and plants from the Lew-Chew islands shared the fate of the Chinese collection; as did also an extensive geological and botanical assortment, obtained from the coast of Tartary by Lieutenant Maughn of the East India Company's service, and Mr. Livingston, surgeon to the factory at Canton. Even thus the catalogue of losses is not complete; and the author, in allusion to the catastrophe, feelingly quotes,

— “ *ibi omnis*
Effusus labor; ” —

though with a hope that, as far as his readers are concerned, they may not consider the application of it as just in its fullest extent. The volume also contains some geological views of the Cape of Good Hope, taken on the spot by Mr. Raper; and a few botanical drawings presented by other friends. An appendix of meteorological tables, in which the author acknowledges that many imperfections exist, completes

pletes the scientific portions of the work. The map, which is reduced from the great map of the Jesuits, preserves the route of the embassy much more distinctly than that which was given to us by Mr. Ellis.

These prefatory remarks include, we believe, all requisite information relative to the nature of the book: we will now, therefore, pursue the purpose before announced; reserving the geological and botanical notices, wherever dispersed, for the final and possibly most important part of this article, in a subsequent Number.

It will be recollected by the readers of Mr. Ellis, or of our analysis of his work, that the Alceste touched at Rio Janeiro in its outward passage. Mr. Abel was much struck there with the enormous proportion which the black population bore to its masters; and he gives a natural but painful solution of the cause of this present exuberance, derived from the consent of the Portuguese government to abolish their traffic in slaves in five years. It appears that, however beneficial this treaty may be to the poor Africans prospectively, it acts at present as a powerful stimulus to the prosecution of this inhuman trade; the object being now to obtain an excess, for the supply of future wants when the commerce shall become unlawful. Yet some benefit has accrued to those of the existing slaves whose masters look a little farther into futurity, from the effects of British interference; means having been taken by many to propagate the race, by checking promiscuous intercourse, and establishing them as husbands and wives on their estates, with some degree of the comforts of civilized life about them. We remark a glow of feeling in the author when speaking on these subjects which does him infinite credit, and preserves him from sinking into the extreme of insipid sentimentalism. A warmth of description will also be found in his brief sketch of the little that he saw in South America, which is greatly weakened as we proceed in the voyage. Let his adieu to St. Sebastian's be an instance:

' On taking leave of Rio de Janeiro, I feel desirous of leaving on the minds of my readers some general notion of the characteristic features of the city of St. Sebastian, and of the country in its neighbourhood; but I fear any description in my power to give would be inadequate to this object. The strongest efforts of the imagination cannot picture any thing so heavenly as the country, or so disgusting as the town. The first contains many of the noblest works of nature in their greatest freshness and beauty, on a magnificent scale; the latter exhibits all the disgusting objects which pride, slavery, laziness, and filth can possibly engender. When I state that the face of high mountains is often covered

with a sheet of blossom, a faint apprehension may perhaps be formed of the beauties of the country ; but when I aver that on entering some parts of the town, I almost lamented that I had an organ of smell, I give no idea of the stench which exhales from the accumulated ordure of its streets.'

The character of the natives of Java is extremely pleasing, and in some degree approaches to the delightful simplicity of the Lew-Chew people. While Mr. Abel was amusing himself with botanical researches on the volcanic mountain of Gunong-Karang, where he made some interesting collections, the attentive kindness of the natives was very remarkable ; as they assisted him in his pursuits, helped him over all the local difficulties, and emulated each other in performing every kind and friendly office. He observes :

'I should exhaust the patience of my reader were I to mention but a small proportion of the numerous proofs I personally experienced of the innate principles of benevolence that enter into the moral character of the Javanese. Not only in the excursion of which I am now giving the narrative, but during the whole period of my first and second visit in Java, they repeatedly occurred to me. That their intellectual is equal to their moral excellence, may be inferred from the specimens of their poetry which have lately been given to the world. Yet these are the people who have been pursued as beasts of prey, and of whom upwards of four hundred have been barbarously and uselessly slaughtered since the island of Java has been given up by the English. Thank God, I did not hear that any of my countrymen had ever oppressed them, but often heard, and often saw that the Javanese looked upon the English rather as benefactors than as masters, and it was notorious that the name of Raffles was almost idolized by them.'

On the disembarkation of the embassy at the mouth of the Pei-ho river, a point of the empire which seems to be as deficient in all natural beauties as it is inferior to all other parts in the general appearance of its inhabitants and their dwellings, Mr. Abel was much struck with the very extraordinary difference in the complexion of the natives : men of the same district varying as much in their hue, as if they had been born in totally different climates. De Guignes, in his *Voyage à Peking*, was also struck with this apparent anomaly ; and he described the colour as depending on the rank and profession of the individual, and the consequent necessity of more or less exposure to the heat of the sun. His solution is verified by Mr. Abel, who had repeated opportunities of seeing this effect illustrated, and to an extent that cannot but be matter of surprize to those who never witnessed it. He tells us that several persons, who were of a dark copper colour

colour upwards, (that is, in those parts of their body which they left constantly exposed,) stripped themselves entirely for the purpose of going into the water and obtaining a nearer view of the embassy; and 'when thus exposed, they appeared, in the distance, to have on a pair of light-coloured pantaloons.' Other variations were remarked in personal appearance, which it seems scarcely possible to attribute to the same cause; and which, in a people so little intermixed with other nations as the Chinese, are sufficiently extraordinary. 'The eyes of those whose complexion was dark, had less of the depressed curve in their internal angles, so remarkable in the Chinese in general, than those who were of a lighter tint. Indeed in some instances, especially in some of the boatmen, this peculiarity entirely disappeared.' We do not recollect to have met with this observation in any other traveller.

During the progress of the embassy to Peking, and in its return to Canton, Mr. Abel omits all notice of the discussions relative to the degrading ceremony of the *ko-tou*; simply telling us, as occasion requires, that such questions did arise; and briefly announcing the result of them, without any inquiry into the merits of the case. This is well judged; both because the repetition of the subject after Mr. Ellis's constant recurrence to it would have been exceedingly tiresome, and because, Mr. A. not being himself a member of the commission of the embassy, but appointed for purposes altogether distinct from its object, delicacy forbade any interference from him, either personal or written, in the question, unless invited to offer it by the ambassador. During some portion of the time, he was in a bad state of health, and unable to keep a journal: but his narrative is not interrupted in consequence; such deficiencies having been supplied from the memorandums of Mr. Morrison and other fellow-travellers.

The Chinese physiognomy has been the constant source of ridicule among Europeans: but it does not appear that the features in our quarter of the globe are held in much higher estimation among the Chinese; the appellation of "horse-faced men" being generally applied to us, as descriptive of our appearance in consequence of the comparatively long faces and large noses which we possess. The hand of an European is also considerably longer than that of a Chinese; which may possibly shew by analogy that the smallness of the feet among this people is not altogether produced by unnatural compression.

In the sudden and forced expedition by land from Tungchow to Yuen-Ming-Yuen, where the fate of the embassy was decided in the extraordinary manner related by Mr.

Ellis, Mr. Abel was accommodated with the use of a saddle-horse, if his description of the animal and its equipments will allow it to be considered in the light of an *accommodation* :

‘ The horses were miserable looking animals, both in themselves and in their caparisons. That on which I rode was about thirteen hands and a half high, of a bay colour, having all his bony points extremely prominent. Accustomed to follow *en train*, and of an obstinate temper, he would seldom pass any of his kind ; and always chose his own pace, which was something between a trot and an amble. His equipment perfectly harmonised with his personal properties. Two pieces of board forming the saddle, met at so acute an angle, that his bare spine would have afforded a more pleasant support. Behind and before it had two high projections, on the former of which I occasionally sat, to relieve myself from the effects of its central portion. A piece of scarlet cloth was indeed thrown over ; but as this was continually slipping, it rather increased than remedied the inconvenience arising from the bare boards. A piece of old cord formed the girth, and permitted the saddle to turn, when I endeavoured to mount. The stirrups were suspended by strings, so short, that they scarcely hung beneath the animal's body, occasioning some danger of collision between my knees and nose. The bridle was of no better materials, and had a bit which the animal totally disregarded. A piece of cord attached to the reins served as a whip. Such an outfit would not have excited dissatisfaction, had it been similar to that of equestrians of respectability in the country ; but I did not witness an instance of the poorest Chinese being more miserably mounted. Remonstrance was in vain ; the mandarins insisted that no better means of conveyance were to be obtained, and many of the gentlemen preferred any other mode of travelling to that of the carts.’

At last, the inconveniences were such that the author was compelled to dismount, and pursue his way until after dark on foot ; when, having suffered severely from two or three falls in the holes of the road, which was formed of blocks of granite, he took refuge in the cart of a friend. These carts, as we described them in our review of Mr. Ellis, were so constructed as to render a dislocation of the joints of the occupiers no unlikely event ; and so severely was their motion felt by the sick, that Mr. Abel was obliged to administer to them doses of opium which could be justified only by the circumstances of time and place, in order to enable them to endure the constant and repeated shocks inflicted on them by their vehicle.

We apprehend that the character of the Chinese for falsehood, prevarication, and every description of paltry artifice, has been sufficiently established by the concurrent testimony of too many travellers, to render the person who now advances such

such an opinion subject to the charges of prejudice and exaggeration. Some writers have wished to confine this description to those who live on the coast; and who, by their commercial intercourse with nations little versed in the value of their commodities, have been led into practices of deception in all matters of buying and selling, at which their countrymen in the interior would blush. One French author, cited by Mr. Abel, observes that "it might be concluded from the relations of travellers, who have only visited the sea-ports of China, that in this country, as in Lacedæmon, theft was permitted, if only successfully practised:" — but, says Mr. A., 'if giving false weight, charging centuple prices, and substituting bad articles for good, form a species of theft, it is not confined to the sea-coast, but practised over the whole empire, and is not only tolerated but applauded, especially where foreigners are the victims.' Fearful, however, of the charge of prejudice, Mr. Abel strengthens his assertion with the recorded sentiments of Le Comte and Du Halde, among a host of other writers. The latter author professes to think that the former, although correct in the main, paints a little too strongly; and yet, in the instances of artifice which he himself relates, he seems to prove that exaggeration is almost impossible. The following statement is from the present traveller himself:

'A kind of balance is used by the Chinese in weighing that enables them readily to deceive the unsuspecting; and gave us many opportunities of witnessing their frauds. It is formed of a long rod or beam, of wood or ivory, with a scale at one end and a moveable weight at the other. The rod is intended to be suspended in equilibrium by a piece of string passing through it. The Chinese, by having two strings at some distance from each other, can alter at pleasure the length of the lever, proportionably increasing or diminishing the weight. Of this construction they never failed to take advantage, at our expense, whenever an opportunity presented itself. I ought, however, to observe, that the soldiers who accompanied us in our excursions, would have obliged them to act thus, if they had not been prompted by their own disposition. These harpies followed us in all our rambles, and, entering the shops, desired the tradesmen to overcharge us; and when a bargain was completed, received the whole of the extra profit.'

The same sort of conduct in the soldiery is mentioned by Dr. Clarke, when speaking of the Janissaries at Constantinople. In China, the custom (to which we shall farther allude) of exhibiting an advertisement over a shop, declaratory of the honesty of the trader within, affords no slight grounds of suspicion of his character.

On the subject of mendicity in China, Mr. Abel differs widely from the accounts of those who were present with Lord Macartney; in which Mr. Barrow observes that he did not perceive a beggar from one extremity of China to the other, except in the streets of Canton. It is very extraordinary to remark how the statements of our modern travellers in France vary on this same head. If we believe such writers as Mr. Birkbeck, no mendicity is to be found there; if we credit others, the stranger is beset with endless importunity. This wide difference, however, may perhaps be partially reconciled, when we recollect that France displays few if any itinerant beggars; while the parochial poor of each village surround the stranger, if he remains there a sufficient time for the inhabitants of that description to be aware of his presence; — and the error seems to lie in the different opinion of travellers as to the character which constitutes a regular mendicant. Respecting China, we have statements on this subject, after the lapse of only a few years, that are wholly contradictory; and, as both writers seem equally intitled to credit, on the score of powers of observation and of inclination to veracity, it is natural to seek the cause of this difference, not in the narrators, but in the internal changes of the country, which may have rendered pauperism and mendicity now common to an extent that, a few years since, was altogether unknown. It appears from Mr. Abel that the internal management of the empire, which in a despotic government must necessarily depend chiefly on the character of the ruler, is conducted in a manner far inferior to that which was exhibited by Kien-Lung the late Emperor, who was on the throne at the period of Lord Macartney's mission. This fact will undoubtedly assist in solving the difficulty: but it does not effectually remove it, because Mr. Abel has proved by citations from several other travellers at different periods that each, at the season when he visited the country, had reason to complain of molestation from mendicants.

With regard to the cities in China, Mr. Abel saw nothing which would induce him to change the opinion that they are all built on the same plan, and that therefore a traveller who had seen one might form a tolerably accurate notion of all the others. He consequently esteems the description given by Du Halde, who has proceeded on the principle *ab uno disce omnes*, as generally correct; though coloured a little too warmly, when he speaks of architectural honours to the brave and good. We give the translation of the passage, as furnished by Mr. Abel, who subjoins the original in a note annexed:

“ The

“ The cities of China are generally of a square form, surrounded with lofty walls having projecting towers at regular intervals, and are usually encompassed by a ditch either dry or full of water. Distributed through the streets and squares, or situated in the vicinity of the principal gates, are round, hexagonal, or octagonal towers of unequal height, triumphal arches, beautiful temples dedicated to idols, and monuments erected in honour of the heroes of the nation, or of those who have rendered important benefits to the state or to the people; and lastly, some public buildings more remarkable for extent than magnificence. The squares are large, the streets long and of variable breadth, some wide, others narrow; the houses have for the most part but a ground floor, and rarely exceed one story. The shops are varnished, and ornamented with silk and porcelain. Before each door is fixed a painted and gilded board seven or eight feet high, supported on a pedestal, and having inscribed on it three large characters chosen by the merchant for the sign of his shop, and distinguishing it from all others. To these are often added a list of the articles to be disposed of, and the name of the seller. Under all, and conspicuous by their size, are the characters *Pou-hou*, ‘ No cheating here.’ ”

Every writer, who treats of China, has in course something to observe concerning its population: but here Mr. Abel, like Mr. Ellis, confesses his incompetency to form any probable estimate. Both attribute the multitudes that they saw to the prevailing curiosity of the people; which depopulated remoter places, to render those more crowded that were situated on the route of the embassy. Both, too, seem to have thought that, though the country was certainly thickly peopled, the numbers fell short of the expectations which the calculations of former travellers had led them to anticipate. This subject, therefore, seems to rest precisely where it did before this unlucky embassy was landed at the mouth of the Pei-ho.

The general character of this singular people, on which some reflections are subsequently offered, is a matter of less uncertain speculation than a question of statistics elucidated by no competent authority: yet it is a difficult task to pourtray a people from a cursory and interrupted contemplation of their habits, in circumstances which allowed only a very confined communication with them. All, therefore, that Mr. Abel writes on this subject must be received (as indeed must the relations of almost every traveller in China) simply as the observations of an individual on the character of a people, not as a philosophical investigation of it. Looking at it with this view, we will note down in an abridged form such remarks as the traveller was to make.

With the higher classes of society, which seemed also the best informed, the members of the expedition had little communication, except under the restraints of parade and ceremony, which prevented them from penetrating farther than the exterior. Some instances, however, of their general proneness to falsehood did appear with sufficient force to render it impossible to place reliance on their representations. With the trading classes they had more intercourse; which led them (we may speak, we believe, in the plural,) to appreciate their honesty much in the manner to which we have before adverted. As an apology for this vice, Mr. Abel observes that cheating was evidently considered 'rather as a necessary qualification to the successful practice of their calling, than as an immoral quality;' and instances of generosity sometimes occurred in the very same persons of this class, who had exhibited the strongest wish to overreach the purchaser in a bargain. The following is a curious example of it: 'On the banks of the Pei-ho,' says Mr. A., 'after purchasing of an itinerant tradesman, under the usual circumstances, some trifling article, I stopped to examine a well-wrought chain, apparently of silver, from which his little apparatus was suspended: he immediately unfastened it, and begged me to accept it, and was apparently much hurt at my refusal.'

A great line of distinction is drawn by Mr. Abel between the peasantry and the class which he terms the lowest orders of society: but we confess that we scarcely understand the exact discrimination which he would establish between them, as far as their degree of consequence in the community is concerned. With regard to character, the marks are sufficiently strong. The peasantry, he says, wherever his experience enabled him to judge, had much of simplicity and amiableness in their composition: — he always found them 'mild, forbearing, and humane.' In the lowest orders, it appeared to him that penury had extinguished all the qualities that distinguish man from beast, except national importance: but, where this latter principle exists, however misguided or absurd, we cannot easily conceive that the seeds of all good will be so absolutely annihilated. We should imagine that, by the *peasantry*, we are to understand those persons who are, in some small degree at least, possessors as well as cultivators of the soil: but, in our ignorance of the divisions or tenure of property in China, we must remain in uncertainty. By the *lowest class* are probably meant such persons as the trackers of the boats, and those who were otherwise employed in menial offices on the rivers.

The statements which have appeared against the general humanity of the people are frequent in many authors, the reputed practice of infanticide being the most serious ground of the charge*: yet it is curious that not a single instance of the exposure of a child occurred to any of the embassy, although they passed for sixteen hundred miles by water through the empire. They did not even meet with what Mr. Abel justly calls an equivocal proof of its existence, in seeing living infants supported by gourds floating in the water, on any one occasion. The testimony of De Guignes corresponds with this representation; indeed it goes farther, inasmuch as he had travelled by land as well as by water, and saw no instance of this inhuman practice. Mr. Barrow, speaking of this manner of placing infants in the precarious situation above mentioned, states only a report that such a custom existed; and that the intention was that the child so exposed might be removed from a home of penury, and received by the humanity of some person who chanced to meet with it. If there be any grounds for such an explanation, the fact would argue that the poorer Chinese had a degree of confidence in the humanity of their richer countrymen, which would contradict the charge of a general want of such a feeling in the people at large: otherwise, the defence would be absurd, as the crime is great, and the disgust naturally created by such exposures would be increased by the folly of the pretext which excused them, and the cruelty of the mode in which they were performed. Mr. Abel saw numerous instances of strong parental affection and solicitude, and in no case met with an example of an opposite tendency; yet still he is inclined to think that the general belief is not altogether without foundation, placing the concurrent testimony of so many above his own limited means of knowledge. He conceives, however, that the practice has been adopted only in times of dreadful scarcity; to which calamity some parts of the empire have been subject at various periods, from many causes. The fact, therefore, as to the existence of this barbarity, stands just as it did; though, as to its extent, it seems greatly weakened by the personal observation of the present author, which indeed shakes the credit of it altogether, but is not powerful enough to entirely overturn the record.

* The late Sir G. Staunton estimated the annual exposures of infants at Pekin only at 2000;—Mr. Barrow at 9000;—and some of the missionaries still higher.

It is time now to recur to other topics. — Before we quit this part of our office, some of our readers may possibly expect a comparison of merit between the accounts given by Mr. Abel and Mr. Ellis: but we see no necessity for weighing them exactly. The regular flow of narrative in the volume before us renders it a better written book, using that expression in a confined sense, than the comparatively disjointed manner of Mr. Ellis's journal would permit that work to be. As a regular historian of the embassy, that gentleman is beyond a doubt more prominent: but, as a writer of travels in the Chinese empire and some other countries, we should be inclined to prefer Mr. Abel.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. II. *Biographia Literaria*: or Biographical Sketches of my Literary Life and Opinions. By S. T. Coleridge, Esq. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Fenner.

WE have so recently offered to the public an examination of the poetical pretensions of Mr. Coleridge, and have taken so much collateral notice of the powers and accomplishments of this peculiar writer, that our present task is necessarily much lightened. His collection of "Sibylline Leaves," or Poems, has served us for an Introduction to his 'Literary Life;' and thus we have reversed the order intended by the author himself: but, we hope, with no inconvenience to our readers. We have presented them with the fruits, or, at all events, with the "*Leaves*" of this original tree, before we displayed its roots, or pursued its ramifications; and perhaps, on the whole, the method which we have adopted may afford Mr. Coleridge the fairest chance of being duly appreciated. However this may be, we must now proceed to a comparatively brief analysis of the work before us; and, following the writer's own divisions, animadvert on the defects or lay open the fairer parts of the performance.

The most interesting portion of the first chapter is that in which the author narrates his early school-instruction, and offers a tribute of (we doubt not) deserved respect to the memory of his master, the Reverend James Bowyer, of Christ's Hospital. From this account of the first formation of Mr. Coleridge's taste, we shall make a selection:

'At school I enjoyed the inestimable advantage of a very sensible, though at the same time, a very severe master. He early moulded my taste to the preference of Demosthenes to Cicero,

Cicero, of Homer and Theocritus to Virgil, and again of Virgil to Ovid. He habituated me to compare Lucretius, (in such extracts as I then read,) Terence, and above all, the chaster poems of Catullus, not only with the Roman poets of the, so called, silver and brazen ages; but with even those of the Augustan era: and on grounds of plain sense and universal logic, to see and assert the superiority of the former, in the truth and nativeness, both of their thoughts and diction. At the same time that we were studying the Greek tragic poets, he made us read Shakspeare and Milton as lessons: and they were the lessons too, which required most time and trouble to *bring up*, so as to escape his censure. I learnt from him, that poetry, even that of the loftiest, and, seemingly, that of the wildest odes, had a logic of its own, as severe as that of science; and more difficult, because more subtle, more complex, and dependent on more, and more fugitive causes. In the truly great poets, he would say, there is a reason assignable, not only for every word, but for the position of every word; and I well remember, that availing himself of the synonymes to the Homer of Didymus, he made us attempt to show, with regard to each, *why* it would not have answered the same purpose; and *wherein* consisted the peculiar fitness of the word in the original text.

‘ In our own English compositions (at least for the last three years of our school education) he showed no mercy to phrase, metaphor, or image, unsupported by a sound sense, or where the same sense might have been conveyed with equal force and dignity in plainer words. Lute, harp, and lyre, muse, muses, and inspirations, Pegasus, Parnassus, and Hipocrene, were all an abomination to him. In fancy I can almost hear him now, exclaiming “ *Harp? Harp? Lyre? Pen and ink, boy, you mean! Muse, boy, Muse? your Nurse’s daughter, you mean! Pierian spring? Oh ’aye! the cloister-pump, I suppose!*” Nay certain introductions, similies, and examples, were placed by name on a list of interdiction. Among the similies, there was, I remember, that of the Manchineel fruit, as suiting equally well with too many subjects; in which however it yielded the palm at once to the example of Alexander and Clytus, which was equally good and apt, whatever might be the theme. Was it ambition? Alexander and Clytus! — Flattery? Alexander and Clytus! — Anger? Drunkenness? Pride? Friendship? Ingratitude? Late repentance? Still, still Alexander and Clytus! At length, the praises of agriculture having been exemplified in the sagacious observation, that had Alexander been holding the plough, he would not have run his friend Clytus through with a spear, this tried and serviceable old friend was banished by public edict in *secula seculorum*. I have sometimes ventured to think, that a list of this kind, or an index expurgatorius of certain well known and ever returning phrases, both introductory and transitional, including the large assortment of modest egotisms, and flattering illeisms, &c. &c. might be hung up in our law-courts, and both houses of parliament, with great advantage to the public, as an important

important saving of national time, an incalculable relief to his Majesty's ministers, but above all, as insuring the thanks of country attornies, and their clients, who have private bills to carry through the house.' *

We should like to see those '*grounds of plain sense and universal logic*' on which 'the superiority of Lucretius and Catullus' in the extracts read by Mr. Coleridge at Christ's Hospital, and of Terence throughout, is to be established, in their comparison with the writers of the Augustan æra! The art of extracting sun-beams from cucumbers, as recorded in the Voyage to Laputa, we should conceive to be *nothing*, compared to the above-mentioned most wonderful process. Waiving, however, the positive nonsense of the opinion here so cavalierly asserted by Mr. Coleridge, we detect in it the germ of that false taste which, as we observed in our report of his "Sibylline Leaves," has obstructed his own progress towards a sound and permanent reputation; while, we fear, it has largely contributed, in his lectures and other temporary endeavours, to confirm the false estimate entertained by many of our countrymen respecting our own older writers. Here is the origin of that spirit which has been so idly at work for many years, and especially among the scribblers of the Lake-school, to depreciate the writings of the æras of William, Anne, and the Georges; and to extol far beyond their due degree (with all their faults and all their follies included in the gross panegyric) the productions of the reigns of Elizabeth and the Stuarts. No opportunity is lost, in the pursuit of this unwise and invidious object. The "stale, flat, and unprofitable" objections to the celebrated passage at the conclusion of the eighth book of Pope's version of the Iliad are here repeated; and they form indeed the sort of *single text* of the critical preachers of the day. It is all that they can discover as the basis of their censure of the great bard of Twickenham: it is a revival of the monotonous, confined, and obstinate *Zoilism* of the dunces of his own period. Why will no modern admirer of this great English genius attempt to *tack on* a fifth book to the Dunciad? — prophetic, if he pleases; and therefore, of course, inoffensive to his contemporaries.

"Ye unborn heroes, crowd not on my soul!"

would rush into the mind of such a writer.

* For '*Hipocrene*' in the above extract, read *Hippocrene*. We take this opportunity to observe that the volumes are much disfigured by verbal errors.

The couplet which Mr. Coleridge has selected for reprobation, from the passage in Pope's version, is this :

“ Around her throne the vivid planets roll,
And stars unnumber'd gild the glowing pole :”

of which he says that it is difficult to determine ‘ whether the sense or the diction be more absurd.’ He has given *no* reasons for this opinion ; — and we must wait till the publication of his celebrated lectures, recently delivered, (with which he positively threatens us,) for an opportunity to canvass his arguments, here so pompously and triumphantly announced. Meanwhile, when it is considered that the whole of this passage, in Pope's Homer, is obviously a paraphrase and not a translation of the original, it surely will follow that the proper subject for discussion is this ; whether the English author has presented a great and glowing picture to the reader, sufficiently similar to the Greek for the purposes of general resemblance ? With regard to his judgment, in chusing to paraphrase instead of translating Homer on this occasion, the unsuccessful attempts of Mr. Cowper, and of some others, to make a closer copy, will perhaps be deemed sufficient to decide the question.

In the same objectionable note in which the above heterodoxical paragraph occurs, is also an attack on Gray's *Elegy* ; which Mr. Wordsworth (forsooth) has manifested to Mr. Coleridge, by the aid of his microscopic spectacles, to contain sundry blemishes !

“ ’Twas I,” says the Fly,
With my LITTLE eye !”

These two *illuminati* have therefore been holding their conjoint “ farthing candle to the sun :” but the only spots, which Mr. Coleridge has told us they have detected in his bright countenance, are the subjoined. In the stanza in “ the Bard” (for in the “ *Elegy*” they are not kind enough to communicate their notable discoveries) which begins, “ Fair laughs the morn,” &c. Mr. Coleridge objects to the words “ realm” and “ sway ;” which, he says, ‘ are rhymes dearly purchased.’ What he means by this, we are at a loss to imagine. “ The azure realm” and “ the whirlwind's sway” appear to us as unobjectionable combinations as could be put together ; and we plainly defy Mr. Coleridge to point out any intelligible or tenable objections to them. Does he deem it right to cast these reflections even *on the epithets* of the most fastidious of poets, without specifying their faults ? He can venerate

volunteer, in a blue coat and white waistcoat, that not a rag of the woman of Babylon might be seen on me. For I was at that time and long after, though a Trinitarian (i.e. *ad normam Platonis*) in philosophy, yet a zealous Unitarian in religion; more accurately, I was a *psilanthropist*, one of those who believe our Lord to have been the real son of Joseph, and who lay the main stress on the resurrection rather than on the crucifixion. O! never can I remember those days with either shame or regret. For I was most sincere, most disinterested! My opinions were indeed in many and most important points erroneous; but my heart was single. Wealth, rank, life itself then seemed cheap to me, compared with the interests of (what I believed to be) the truth, and the will of my Maker. I cannot even accuse myself of having been actuated by vanity; for in the expansion of my enthusiasm I did not think of *myself* at all.

‘ My campaign commenced at Birmingham; and my first attack was on a rigid Calvinist, a tallow-chandler by trade. He was a tall dingy man, in whom length was so predominant over breadth, that he might almost have been borrowed for a foundery poker. O that face! a face *κατ’ ἐμφασιν*! I have it before me at this moment. The lank, black, twine-like hair, *pingui-nitescens*, cut in a strait line along the black stubble of his thin gunpowder eye brows, that looked like a scorched *after-math* from a last week’s shaving. His coat collar behind in perfect unison, both of colour and lustre with the coarse yet glib cordage, that I suppose he called his hair, and which with a *bend* inward at the nape of the neck (the only approach to flexure in his whole figure) slunk in behind his waistcoat; while the countenance lank, dark, very *hard*, and with strong perpendicular furrows, gave me a dim notion of some one looking at me through a *used* gridiron, all soot, grease, and iron! But he was one of the *thorough-bred*, a true lover of liberty, and (I was informed) had proved to the satisfaction of many, that Mr. Pitt was one of the horns of the second beast in the Revelations, *that spoke like a dragon*. A person to whom one of my letters of recommendation had been addressed, was my introducer. It was a new event in my life, my first *stroke* in the new business I had undertaken of an author, yea, and of an author trading on his own account. My companion after some imperfect sentences and a multitude of hums and haas abandoned the cause to his client; and I commenced an harangue of half an hour to Phileleutheros, the tallow-chandler, varying my notes through the whole gamut of eloquence from the ratiocinative to the declamatory, and in the latter from the pathetic to the indignant. I argued, I described, I promised, I prophesied; and beginning with the captivity of nations I ended with the near approach of the Millenium, finishing the whole with some of my own verses describing that glorious state out of *the Religious Musings*:

— ‘ Such delights,
As float to earth, permitted visitants!
When in some hour of solemn jubilee

The

The massive gates of Paradise are thrown
Wide open : and forth come in fragments wild
Sweet echoes of unearthly melodies,
And odors snatch'd from beds of Amaranth,
And they that from the chrystal river of life
Spring up on freshen'd wings, ambrosial gales ! L. 356.

' My taper man of lights listened with perseverant and praiseworthy patience, though (as I was afterwards told on complaining of certain gales that were not altogether ambrosial) it was a *melting* day with him. And what, Sir! (he said after a short pause) might the cost be? *Only FOUR-PENCE* (O! how I felt the anticlimax, the abysmal bathos of that *four-pence*!) *only four-pence, Sir, each number, to be published on every eighth day.* That comes to a deal of money at the end of a year. And how much did you say there was to be for the money? *Thirty-two pages, Sir! large octavo, closely printed.* Thirty and two pages? Bless me, why except what I does in a family way on the Sabbath, that's more than I ever reads, Sir! all the year round. I am as great a one, as any man in Brummagem, Sir! for liberty and truth and all them sort of things, but as to this (no offence, I hope, Sir!) I must beg to be excused.'

Much more occurs, of the same amusing cast: but our limits forbid us to extract it, and we must proceed to another class of anecdotes; namely, the instances of most ludicrous as well as detestable *espionage* which Mr. C. has mentioned as having been exercised over him and a philosophical friend, during the reign of terror in England. Some of these incidents, indeed, wear a *little* the appearance of having been *heightened* for the purposes of entertaining narration; that, for example, in which a spy with a large nose, sent down to *watch* the author at his residence in the country, overhears him talking of *Spy Nosy*, (Spinoza,) and considers it as a personal allusion to himself!! In any case, however, the present division of the 'Literary Life' is very lively and laughable; and we offer our thanks to Mr. Coleridge for much good-humoured and rational exposure of his own follies, and those of the government (if *they* can be designated by so lenient a name) which descended to such unmeaning persecution.

Mr. Coleridge concludes the chapter in which these matters are detailed, with a brief retrospect of time mis-spent and talents mis-employed; with a simple and touching appeal to the sympathies of his readers, both in English and Latin verse: but the section which follows presents a peculiar claim to the attention of that numerous race of well-educated young men in England, who are, or are aspiring to become, authors. The end of this chapter, we think, deserves quotation; and then (passing over the metaphysics) we must advance to the

second volume, or rather to that division of it which relates to Mr. Wordsworth.

'It would be a sort of irreligion, and scarcely less than a libel on human nature to believe, that there is any established and reputable profession or employment, in which a man may not continue to act with honesty and honor; and doubtless there is likewise none, which may not at times present temptations to the contrary. But woefully will that man find himself mistaken, who imagines that the profession of literature, or (to speak more plainly) the *trade* of authorship, besets its members with fewer or with less insidious temptations, than the church, the law, or the different branches of commerce. But I have treated sufficiently on this unpleasant subject in an early chapter of this volume. I will conclude the present therefore with a short extract from HERDER, whose name I might have added to the illustrious list of those, who have combined the successful pursuit of the muses, not only with the faithful discharge, but with the highest honors and honorable emoluments of an established profession. "With the greatest possible solicitude avoid authorship. Too early or immoderately employed, it makes the head *waste* and the heart empty; even were there no other worse consequences. A person, who reads only to print, in all probability reads amiss; and he, who sends away through the pen and the press every thought, the moment it occurs to him, will in a short time have sent all away, and will become a mere journeyman of the printing-office, a *compositor*." To which I may add from myself, that what medical physiologists affirm of certain secretions, applies equally to our thoughts; they too must be taken up again into the circulation, and be again and again re-secreted in order to ensure a healthful vigor, both to the mind and to its intellectual offspring.'

The criticisms on Mr. Wordsworth, with which Mr. Coleridge commences his second volume, we have justly denominated *extraordinary*; for, though we may have perfect faith in his professed admiration of his friend, Mr. C. has nevertheless pointed out so many errors of design and execution in this very moderate writer, (as we must ever consider him,) and has furnished a clue to the exposure of so many more absurdities, that we cannot but here rank Mr. C. among the unintentional defenders of good taste and good sense in poetry. He *confines his opposition* to Mr. Wordsworth's *system* (if we must so call it) to the following points: first, to what Mr. W. intitles "a selection of the *real* language of men;" secondly, to his "imitation," and his "adoption, *as far as possible*, of the very language of men in low and rustic life;" and, thirdly, to his assertion that "between the language of prose and that of metrical composition, there neither is, nor can be, any essential difference." When it is recollected that these points form the very ground-work, and much of the superstructure,

of

of Mr. Wordsworth's plan for vulgarizing poetry, it seems strange that Mr. Coleridge should talk of *confining his opposition* to them alone; and, by a few extracts from the second volume of this 'Literary Life,' we think that we shall be able to expose the manifest flaws in Mr. W.'s title to *any* estate or heritage in the manors of Parnassus, Helicon, and the lands lying thereabout. Mr. Coleridge saves his consistency, indeed, by an asseveration that the faults of Mr. W.'s theory are *rarely* exemplified in his practice: but, as the force of this remark lies entirely in the adverb *rarely*, an arithmetical process, instituted on the cases in question in the "Lyrical Ballads," will be the only method of settling the dispute between our brother-critic and ourselves. The result of our sum is very different from his: but we are perfectly agreed in our principles of calculation.

Mr. C. thus marshals his objections to his friend's absurd fancies on the foregoing topics:

'I object, in the very first instance, to an equivocation in the use of the word "real." Every man's language varies, according to the extent of his knowledge, the activity of his faculties, and the depth or quickness of his feelings. Every man's language has, first, its *individualities*; secondly, the common properties of the class to which he belongs; and thirdly, words and phrases of *universal* use. The language of Hooker, Bacon, Bishop Taylor, and Burke, differ from the common language of the learned class only by the superior number and novelty of the thoughts and relations which they had to convey. The language of Algernon Sidney differs not at all from that, which every well-educated gentleman would wish to write, and (with due allowances for the undeliberateness, and less connected train, of thinking natural and proper to conversation) such as he would wish to talk. Neither one or the other differ half as much from the general language of cultivated society, as the language of Mr. Wordsworth's homeliest composition differs from that of a common peasant. For "real," therefore, we must substitute *ordinary*, or *lingua communis*. And this, we have proved, is no more to be found in the phraseology of low and rustic life, than in that of any other class. Omit the peculiarities of each, and the result of course must be common to all. And assuredly the omissions and changes to be made in the language of rustics, before it could be transferred to any species of poem, except the drama or other professed imitation, are at least as numerous and weighty, as would be required in adapting to the same purpose the ordinary language of tradesmen and manufacturers. Not to mention, that the language so highly extolled by Mr. Wordsworth varies in every county, nay in every village, according to the accidental character of the clergyman, the existence or non-existence of schools; or even, perhaps, as the exciseman, publican, or barber happen to be, or not to be,

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zealous

zealous politicians, and readers of the weekly newspaper *pro bono publico*. Anterior to cultivation, the *lingua communis* of every country, as Dante has well observed, exists every where in parts, and no where as a whole.'

These remarks we regard as very sensible, and urged with much conciseness and force of reasoning. Combined with what follows, they are obviously and utterly destructive of the very foundations of Mr. Wordsworth's *system*. — We subjoin another extract, with a quotation from the "Lyrical Ballads;" to which we shall add several others, and then close this brief but we trust convincing exposure of the greatest piece of folly and arrogance, (the pretensions, we mean, of Mr. W.'s poetry to any thing either meritorious or original *,) which has disgraced the present *prodigious* æra of our poetical literature.

'I conclude, therefore, that the attempt is impracticable; and that, were it not impracticable, it would still be useless. For the very power of making the selection implies the previous possession of the language selected. Or where can the poet have lived? And by what rules could he direct his choice, which would not have enabled him to select and arrange his words by the light of his own judgement? We do not adopt the language of a class by the mere adoption of such words exclusively, as that class would use, or at least understand; but likewise by following the *order*, in which the words of such men are wont to succeed each other. Now this order, in the intercourse of uneducated men, is distinguished from the diction of their superiors in knowledge and power, by the greater *disjunction* and *separation* in the component parts of that, whatever it be, which they wish to communicate. There is a want of that prospectiveness of mind, that *surview*, which enables a man to foresee the whole of what he is to convey, appertaining to any one point; and by this means so to subordinate and arrange the different parts according to their relative importance, as to convey it at once, and as an organized whole.

'Now I will take the first stanza, on which I have chanced to open, in the Lyrical Ballads. It is one the most simple and the least peculiar in its language.

' "In distant countries I have been,
And yet I have not often seen
A healthy man, a man full grown,
Weep in the public road alone.
But such a one, on English ground,
And in the broad highway I met;

* We deny the originality of this author, on the ground of those numerous nursery-poems which existed before his own weak attempt to palm such productions on mature understandings.

Along the broad highway he came,
His cheeks with tears were wet.
Sturdy he seem'd, though he was sad,
And in his arms a lamb he had."

' The words here are doubtless such as are current in all ranks of life; and of course not less so, in the hamlet and cottage, than in the shop, manufactory, college, or palace. But is this the *order*, in which the rustic would have placed the words? I am grievously deceived, if the following less *compact* mode of commencing the same tale be not a far more faithful copy. "I have been in a many parts far and near, and I don't know that I ever saw before a man crying by himself in the public road; a grown man I mean, that was neither sick nor hurt," &c. &c.'

We shall merely, *en passant*, observe on a criticism by Mr. Wordsworth, applied to Gray's Sonnet on the Death of West, and here quoted by Mr. Coleridge, that, when Mr. W. asserts that the only good lines in the Sonnet are those which he has marked with italics, he has betrayed his usual caprice. For example; one of his *italic* lines is the following:

"A different object *do* these eyes require;"

and one of his *roman* lines (not supposed to have the same merit) is this:

"These ears, alas! for other notes repine."

If such capricious nonsense were allowed to pass for *criticism*, we should be inclined to resign our office in shame and confusion. We find ourselves unable to abridge, with any clearness, Mr. Coleridge's train of argument which establishes, in opposition to his whimsical friend, the *essential* difference between the language of prose and that of poetry. We must therefore be satisfied with quoting his final appeal to an undeniable fact; leaving the inference with our readers, who perhaps may consider so *self-evident* a matter as scarcely worth a dispute in the 19th century.

' Lastly, I appeal to the practice of the best poets of all countries and in all ages, as *authorizing* the opinion, (*deduced* from all the foregoing) that in every import of the word *ESSENTIAL*, which would not here involve a mere truism, there may be, is, and ought to be, an *essential* difference between the language of prose and of metrical composition.'

Let us now quote the promised examples of the happy results of Mr. W.'s theory. Will that mistaken gentleman ever be persuaded that, if thought be the soul of poetry, expression is its body; and that both body and soul are of a peculiar and plainly distinguished cast and character? With the "Lyrical Ballads" before us, we could add, *usque ad nauseam*, to the subjoined list of childish trifles: but, in a review of

Mr. Coleridge's life, we are bound to confine ourselves to his criticisms on passages in Mr. Wordsworth.

The last three Stanzas of the Sailor's Mother.

- “ And thus continuing, she said
I had a son, who many a day
Sailed on the seas ; but he is dead ;
In Denmark he was cast away :
And I have travelled far as Hull, to see
What clothes he might have left, or other property.
- “ The bird and cage, they both were his ;
'Twas my son's bird ; and neat and trim
He kept it ; many voyages
This singing bird hath gone with him ;
When last he sailed he left the bird behind ;
As it might be, perhaps, from bodings of his mind.
- “ He to a fellow-lodger's care
Had left it, to be watched and fed,
Till he came back again ; and there
I found it when my son was dead ;
And now, God help me for my little wit !
I trail it with me, Sir ! he took so much delight in it.”

How are we sure what a book-maker will vend next for poetry, who has already offered for sale such inconceivable trash as this ?

We owe it to Mr. Coleridge to state that he labours very assiduously, by selections from his friend's few successful attempts, to counterbalance, nay to overwhelm, the effect of his own vituperative criticisms, on the remaining and (as we contend) much the larger portion of his poems. We are quite ready to allow that, when Mr. Wordsworth steps out of himself, when he no longer appears in the character of the *rustic egotistical metaphysician*, he writes very passably, and just like other poets on similar topics : — but, as we are of opinion that a great part of the bad taste of the day has arisen from that foolish good-nature which, for the sake of a few unobjectionable or even excellent passages, praises and gives popularity to whole poems, we hold it to be the duty of every classical scholar, or lover of genuine poetry, to discountenance either by a judicious silence, or by a well chosen opportunity of vigorous censure, the vain assumptions of our numerous poetical *charlatans*.

From the Blind Highland Boy.

- “ And one, the rarest, was a shell,
Which he, poor child, had studied well :
The shell of a green turtle, thin
And hollow ; — you might sit therein,
It was so wide and deep.”

“ Our

“ Our Highland Boy oft visited
 The house which held this prize, and led
 By choice or chance did thither come
 One day, when no one was at home,
 And found the door unbarred.”

In a succeeding extract, Mr. Coleridge applauds a couplet in which a lark is described, (a “drunken lark!” by the way,)

“ With a soul as strong as a mountain river
 Pouring out praise to th’ Almighty giver !”

De gustibus, &c.

Again ; — Mr. C. quotes, but not with applause,

“ Close by a pond, upon the further side
 He stood alone ; a minute’s space I guess,
 I watch’d him, he continuing motionless ;
 To the pool’s further margin then I drew ;
 He being all the while before me full in view.”

Which of the numerous happy parodists of Mr. Wordsworth has attributed to him a heaviness and an absurdity greater than the preceding? — Again ; — extracted from a general panegyric, by Mr. Coleridge himself:

“ He with a smile did then his tale repeat ;
 And said, that, gathering leeches far and wide
 He travelled ; stirring thus about his feet
 The waters of the ponds where they abide.
 “ Once I could meet with them on every side,
 But they have dwindled long by slow decay ;
 Yet still I persevere, and find them where I may.”

We beg our readers to pardon us for so long detaining them on such perfectly ludicrous matters: but we hope that we may be spared, in future, the necessity of troubling them or ourselves with any exposure of the hollowness of Mr. W.’s poetical reputation. If it be thought that we have already dwelt too much on his follies, be it remembered that he is the very founder and father of that modern school, which we have always wished to see held up to the general ridicule that it deserves; and if it be not thus overpowered, woe to the taste, judgment, and whole understanding of the rising generation! — It must also be considered that the space, which we have allotted to Mr. Coleridge’s just but evidently reluctant criticisms on his friend, has enabled us to give our readers so much the less of Mr. C. himself as a biographer and metaphysician; and that we have had the charity to abstain altogether from any mention of Mr. Southey, who claims his portion in this volume of triple admiration; dedicated to
 that

that trio, whose mutual puffs have so often linked them in harmonies of applause, but at whose frequent union in literary censure Mr. Coleridge expresses the most innocent surprize!

We are sorry to be obliged to omit a large remaining portion of the *Biographia Literaria* *; and especially the chapter of it in which Mr. Coleridge presents us with a masterly, spirited, and moral critique on that reproach to the tragic muse of England, the *tragedy* of "Bertram." *O si sic omnia!*

ART. III. *Mad. de Staël's Considerations on the Events of the French Revolution.*

[Article concluded from p. 16.]

WE have already followed this interesting writer in her relation of M. Necker's administration, and more briefly in her account of the measures of the Directory; and we are now to resume our report at a period at which she exerts all her vigour, to depict the character of the man who overturned the efforts of the French for independence, and for a time constituted himself the sole inheritor of the labours of the Revolution.

Estimate of Bonaparte as a civil Governor. — A great part of the second volume is appropriated to this subject, and we have seldom met with a more interesting mixture of narrative and reflection. Bonaparte early attracted the attention of the friends of liberty by the style of his proclamations; their liberality forming a contrast with the revolutionary bitterness to which the French had been for some time accustomed.

' Bonaparte in his army had not enforced the laws against emigrants. He was said to be much attached to his wife, whose character was full of gentleness; it was asserted that he was feelingly alive to the beauties of Ossian; people took delight in ascribing to him all the generous qualities which give a pleasing relief to extraordinary talents. —

' It was with this sentiment, at least, that I saw him for the first time at Paris. — But, when I was a little recovered from the confusion of admiration, a strongly marked sentiment of fear succeeded. — I had seen men highly worthy of esteem; I had likewise seen monsters of ferocity: there was nothing in the effect which Bonaparte produced on me, that could bring back to my recollection either the one or the other. I soon perceived, in the different opportunities which I had of meeting him during his stay at Paris, that his character could not be defined by the

* Among our omissions, we must reckon the discovery of a plagiarism in David Hume from Thomas Aquinas

words which we commonly use ; he was neither good, nor violent, nor gentle, nor cruel, after the manner of individuals of whom we have any knowledge. —

‘ Far from recovering my confidence by seeing Bonaparte more frequently, he constantly intimidated me more and more. I had a confused feeling that no emotion of the heart could act upon him. He regards a human being as an action or a thing, not as a fellow-creature. He does not hate more than he loves; for him nothing exists but himself; all other creatures are cyphers. The force of his will consists in the impossibility of disturbing the calculations of his egotism; he is an able chess-player, and the human race is the opponent to whom he proposes to give check-mate. His successes depend as much on the qualities in which he is deficient as on the talents which he possesses. Neither pity, nor allurements, nor religion, nor attachment to any idea whatsoever, could turn him aside from his principal direction. He is for his self-interest what the just man should be for virtue; if the end were good, his perseverance would be noble.

‘ Every time that I heard him speak, I was struck with his superiority; yet it had no similitude to that of men instructed and cultivated by study or society, such as those of whom France and England can furnish examples. But his discourse indicated a fine perception of circumstances, such as the sportsman has of the game which he pursues. Sometimes he related the political and military events of his life in a very interesting manner; he had even somewhat of Italian imagination in narratives which allowed of gaiety. Yet nothing could triumph over my invincible aversion for what I perceived in him. I felt in his soul a cold sharpened sword, which froze the wound that it inflicted.’ —

‘ His manners in society are constrained, without timidity; he has an air of vulgarity when he is at his ease, and of disdain when he is not: disdain suits him best, and accordingly he indulges in it without scruple.’

Mad. de Staël had soon an opportunity of confirming the unfavourable bias of her impressions with regard to Bonaparte. The Directory projected, chiefly at his suggestion, the invasion of Switzerland, under the pretext of relieving the *Pays de Vaud* from subjection to the selfish aristocrats of Berne: but the plea was evidently so unsuited to the magnitude of the aggression, and the whole appeared so monstrous an attack on national independence, that Mad. de S. determined to try the effect of a private interview with the man who so loudly advocated the cause of freedom.

‘ In every circumstance of my life, the errors which I have committed in politics have proceeded from the idea that men were always capable of being moved by truth, if it was presented to them with force. I remained nearly an hour in conference with Bonaparte: he is a good and patient listener, for he wishes to know if what is said can throw any light on his own affairs: but

Cicero

Cicero and Demosthenes together would not draw him to the slightest sacrifice of personal interest. —

‘ He alleged the situation of the Pays de Vaud, as a motive for the entrance of the French troops. He told me, that the inhabitants of that district were subject to the aristocrats of Berne, and that men could not now exist without political rights. I moderated, as well as I could, this republican ardour, by representing to him that the Vaudois were perfectly free in every civil relation, and that when liberty exists in fact, it is unnecessary for the sake of the abstract right to expose ourselves to the greatest of misfortunes, that of seeing foreigners in our native land. “Self-love and imagination,” replied the General, “make men cling to the advantage of sharing in the government of their country, and there is injustice in excluding any portion of them from it.” Nothing is more true in principle, said I, General; but it is equally true that it is by their own efforts that liberty should be obtained, and not by calling in the aid of a power which must be necessarily predominant. The word principle has since appeared very suspicious to Bonaparte, but it then suited him to make use of it, and he alleged it against me. I insisted anew upon the happiness and beauty of Switzerland, and the repose which she had for many centuries enjoyed. “Yes, without doubt,” said Bonaparte, interrupting me, “but men must have *political rights*; yes,” repeated he, as if the words had been committed to memory, “*political rights*.” Then, changing the conversation, because he wished to hear no more upon the subject, he spoke to me of his love for retirement, for the country, and for the fine arts; and took the trouble of exhibiting himself to me in aspects suited to what he supposed to be the turn of my imagination.

‘ The conversation, however, gave me some idea of the attractions which may be found in him when he assumes the air of a plain good-natured man, and speaks with simplicity of himself and his projects. This art, the most formidable of all, has captivated many.

Mad. de S. was at Paris at the time (18 Brumaire, or 9 November, 1799,) of Bonaparte’s assumption of the consular power, and had soon reason to verify her suspicion that the whole tendency of his measure pointed to the establishment of his own sway on the ruins of the liberty of France. One of his first public acts was to remove his residence from the Luxemburg to the Tuileries: which took place with great pomp, and with a display of oriental servility on the part of those around him that already indicated an approximation to the habits of despotism. He ascended, says Mad. de S., the spacious stairs of the palace in the midst of a croud of spectators, without deigning to fix his eyes on any object or any person; his look expressing an indifference approaching to disdain of all around him: but the French have little penetration into character; and a variety of circumstances combined

bined to favour his project. The parties in the legislature were no longer possessed of influence; men of all classes found themselves in the hands of power; thousands were on the list of emigrants; and thousands more held the estates of emigrants by a precarious tenure. Bonaparte 'constantly marched between two opposite interests,' and made a point of not terminating this disquietude by fixed laws, but reserved to himself the power of disposing of the lot of every class of individuals. The news-paper-writers (*journalistes*) were forthwith taken into pay, and the nation was dazzled by a continuation of military successes. His power was thus very soon consolidated: the peace with Austria, and still more the treaty with Great Britain in 1802, placed him above all attack; and we can by no means participate in the opinion that fresh wars, and fresh victories, were necessary to maintain the man to whom France felt grateful for her escape from revolutionary horrors. Bonaparte, however, seems to have been incapable of tranquillity; and, in his successive aggressions, it unluckily happened that his brilliant talents and the mismanagement of his opponents combined to throw, in the popular contemplation, a veil over his culpable designs. This continued to be the case in France until 1808; when the general dissatisfaction of the nation with the aggression on Spain drew a distinct line between its wishes and those of its sovereign. The subsequent war of 1809 with Austria was less understood: but a general impression now prevailed among the French, that peace would be denied to them during the life-time of Napoleon. Of the grounds of his quarrel with Russia they knew little, but they considered him as the aggressor on finding that he led his armies to so vast a distance. It is, on the other hand, true that, in his day of adversity, particularly when defending the French territory in the spring of 1814, they again mixed their cause with his; conceiving the vain hope that, could he but make peace with the allies, they might look forwards to an improved administration. Peace, however, was no longer attainable; the allied powers, we are satisfied, having no serious intention of negotiating with Bonaparte from the moment that he lost his army in Russia, and that there was a well-founded hope of expelling him from the throne. Mad. de S., however, we apprehend, is perfectly right in remarking that, after the insurrection in Spain, and so lately as 1811, he might have continued the greatest monarch on earth, had he been actuated but by one amiable feeling; by that of equity towards foreign nations; of sympathy towards the French, who rushed to death whenever he gave the signal; or, finally, of that paternal prudence

dence which leads a man to take care of an inheritance for his son. 'One virtue, one single virtue, (vol. ii. p. 390.) would have sufficed to have fixed all human prosperity on the head of Bonaparte, but the divine spark dwelt not in his heart.'

Napoleon passed among the French for the first tactician of the age, as well as for a man of universal knowledge: but Mad. de S. knew better how to limit the estimate of his qualifications.

'It is pretended that, in discussions in the Council of State, Napoleon displayed a universal sagacity. I have some doubts of the ability ascribed to a man who is all-powerful; we, plain people in private life, earn our celebrity at a much dearer rate. One is not, however, master of Europe during fifteen years, without having a piercing view of men and things. But there was in the mind of Bonaparte an incoherence, which is a marked feature of those who do not range their thoughts under the law of duty. The power of commanding had been given by nature to Bonaparte; but it was rather because other men did not act upon him, than because he acted upon them, that he became their master.—The multitude of men of talents whom he employed is extraordinary; but the characters whom he debased have done more harm to the cause of liberty than the service that could be rendered to it by all the powers of intelligence. To him, above all, may be applied the fine image of despotism, in the "Spirit of Laws;" "he cut up the tree by its roots to obtain its fruit," and perhaps he has even dried up the soil.

'In a word, Bonaparte, the absolute master of eighty millions of men, and meeting no where with opposition, knew neither how to found a single institution in the state, nor durable power for himself. What then was the destructive principle which haunted his triumphal steps? What was it?—the contempt of mankind, and consequently of all the laws, all the studies, all the establishments, and all the elections of which the basis is respect for the human race. Bonaparte was intoxicated with the vile draught of Machiavelism; he resembled in many respects the Italian tyrants of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries; and as he had read but little, the natural tendency of his character was not counteracted by the effect of information.'—

'A general principle, whatever it might be, was displeasing to Bonaparte, as a thing foolish or hostile. He listened only to the considerations of the moment, and examined things merely with a view to their immediate utility; for he would have wished to stake the whole world in an annuity on his own life. He was not sanguinary, but indifferent respecting the lives of men, considering them but as a means of attaining his end, or as an obstacle to be removed out of his way. He was even less irascible than he often seemed to be: he wished to terrify by his words, in order to spare himself the act by the threat. Every thing with him was means, or end; nothing involuntary was to be found either
in

in good or evil. It is pretended that he said, "I have so many conscripts to expend by the year;" and it is probable that he held that language; for Bonaparte had contempt enough for his hearers to delight in a kind of sincerity which is nothing less than impudence.

'He never believed in exalted sentiments, either in individuals or in nations; he considered the expression of these sentiments as hypocrisy. He believed that he held the key of human nature by fear and by hope, skilfully presented to the selfish and the ambitious.'

In one point we cannot coincide with this lady's remarks on Bonaparte; she ascribes to pride that appearance of domineering which we are convinced was almost always dictated by policy. It is thus that we explain his stately demeanour (vol. ii. p. 394.) towards his brothers and marshals, as well as that general manifestation of disdain which to her seemed inherent in his disposition.

State of public Feeling in France. — Whoever has travelled with observing eyes in France must have been struck with a general want of public spirit; a reluctance to perform any civil function, even such as that of jurymen; a distrust of the public funds as a deposit for money; in short, a disposition to consider each successive ministry as equally bad with its predecessor. A man of rank or property in France has no idea of exercising an useful employment in the country, such as sheriff or justice of the peace: Paris is every thing in his eyes; and the gracious looks of the minister or the sovereign form the object of all his cares. 'It is by this,' says Madame de S., (vol. iii. p. 100.) 'that we are to explain bows made and bows refused; effusions of condescension and sallies of passion: — one must possess great dignity of mind to dispense with court favour in France; even your friends make you feel its value by their eager attention to those who possess it.' The number of solicitations incessantly making in France for public employments, great and small, exceeds all idea: the Bonapartists claim places because they held places before; and the Royalists make their attachment to the King a ground for the most extraordinary demands: in truth, 'the first article of the rights of man in that country is that every Frenchman should hold some public office.' Of all these candidates, the most moderate were those who had been contented to share the fortunes of the King throughout the whole of his exile: while their brother-royalists, who had returned to France long before, and had obtained places under Bonaparte, were most vehement in exclamations against him and in favour of the Bourbons: 'to such a degree,' says the author, (vol. iii. p. 103.) 'that I and others, whom

whom Bonaparte had proscribed during the whole course of his reign, began to examine whether we had not been his favourites when we felt inclined to soften these eloquent invectives.'

The main-spring of all these solicitations and promises is to be sought not so much in pecuniary calculations as in vanity, and in the long prevalence of implicit obedience to the ruling power. The last generation was brought up wholly in the habits of a court, and the present have till lately seen nothing but continued temptations to blind and unprincipled subserviency. Their different governments since 1792 have all adapted their measures to the selfish part of the human mind; casting ridicule on religion; and maintaining, as Bonaparte (vol. ii. p. 388.) openly avowed to the Duke of Melzi, an Italian nobleman of high character, 'that there is only one thing to do in this world; viz. to get continually more money and more power; all the rest is chimerical.' Trained by such rulers, the French of the present day can form little idea of consistency of opinion or inflexibility of principle in a public man: a respectable opposition is a novelty to them; and it is therefore with astonishment that they hear of any such man among us refusing to be detached from his party by the offer of a place, and the favour of the prince. Even Mad. de Staël was surprised, when in London, to find that the favour or the dislike of the court has no effect on the importance of public men in society; 'for in Paris,' she says, 'before inviting a person to dinner, you consider if he be in the good graces of ministers.' This subserviency to power, however, by no means prevailed in France during the first three years of the Revolution; nor is so degraded a state of public feeling natural to the nation. In private life, the French have never shewn themselves a mercenary people; and their strange aberrations in a public capacity are to be ascribed not to inherent and insurmountable obstacles, but to the accidental and temporary causes enumerated by the present author.

No topic is more anxiously urged by Mad. de S., than that the introduction of the English constitution into France will alter the character of the nation, and render it fit for the tranquil enjoyment of liberty. If it be alleged that, during the whole twenty-five years of the Revolution, no government appeared in France that was not either inatuated or wicked, yet, on the other hand, there was not an æra in the Revolution in which great virtues have not been displayed.

A keen resolution and an ardent spirit still exist in France; and, among the young men in public life, many are now coming forwards

forwards who are as exempt from the prejudices of their fathers as they are innocent of their crimes. If the prospect still appears discouraging, let us, adds the Baroness, cast our eyes on the history of England, and observe the hopeless efforts and occasional degradation exhibited in such reigns as that of Henry VIII. The assemblies of revolutionary France could not afford a more mortifying picture than that English parliament which accused Sir Thomas More; which charged itself with the impeachments brought against the innocent wives of the tyrant; and which decreed that, in religion, the King's proclamation should be considered as possessing the authority of revelation. Another scene of mortifying subserviency was displayed by the English parliament in the latter years of Charles II.; and it was then a general opinion on the Continent that these "factionous islanders" were incapable of either obtaining or enjoying a free government. To what, then, are we to ascribe the acquiescence of the English people in former days under such enormities? to the want, certainly, not of spirit or of innate equity, but of political experience; and to an unacquaintance with those rules which must be consecrated by time before they are incorporated with our practical routine. In France, the public has yet but few ideas of justice; during the Revolution, every party that failed was considered to be in the wrong merely because it had not succeeded; and at present, were a person of the best reputation to incur imprisonment on a charge from government, he would be at once regarded by the public as guilty. This blindness, strange as it seems, results not from deficient equity in the national character, and still less from a want of sympathetic disposition: it is the consequence of perpetually keeping a people in darkness as to the mode of transacting public business, and of directing all their energies to military objects. The French are thus taught to look on power as right, and on solicitation as the only means of making those who possess power favourable to them.

Madame de S. gives (vol. iii. p. 111.) her opinion at some length on a very delicate and important question: — the conduct that ought to be observed by the Bourbons towards their subjects. With regard to the military, let the King, she says, pay regularly their appointments and pensions, but convince them at the same time that they are neither feared nor wanted; the government being now constitutional, and having the people on its side. As to the emigrants who were stripped of their property in the revolutionary storm, the nation would not object to moderate allowances paid by the

King, from year to year, out of a supplement to the civil list; and, with respect to the clergy, the conduct of government should be the same as towards all other classes;—viz. toleration and liberty, taking things on their actual footing. To restore the wealth or the power of the former clergy would certainly alienate the nation more and more from piety; and it would have no connection with the just compassion inspired by the sufferings of the priests. A similar caution is applicable to the *noblesse*; whose privileges ought on no account to be renewed as a compensation for the injustice which they have suffered. Let the French government, she adds, take as a model the conduct not of the house of Stuart after 1660, but of the house of Hanover after 1715: assimilating the constitution of France more and more to that of England; establishing local authorities in the provincial towns; and creating political interests in those insulated communities, to diminish that ascendancy of Paris which is a perpetual source of intrigue.

It appears to us that Mad. de S. is perfectly acquainted with the peculiarities of the French national character; and especially with two points which seem to escape their own observation;—a want of secrecy in their combinations, and of perseverance in following up that which they begin with great ardour. No people, she says, (vol. ii. p. 42.) are less fit for conspiracies; they are incapable of the silence and secrecy required for these dark projects; and, whatever their history presents that is remarkable in this way, particularly the dreadful day of St. Bartholomew, it may be traced to the contrivance of foreigners, especially Italians. Even in the late Revolution, which called forth such a display of talents in the legislature and in the army, it was a foreigner who reaped the fruits and put the crown of the Bourbons on his head. Every one, observes Mad. de Staël, (vol. ii. p. 182.) ‘knew on the night before 18 Fructidor (4th September, 1797,) that a great blow was to be struck; for in France men conspire in the public streets, or rather they do not conspire but excite one another.’ She is equally explicit with regard to another material point,—the deficiency of education in France. Under the long reign of Bonaparte, all was absorbed by military objects; instruction for other purposes was comparatively neglected; and the result of these and former abuses is that much less information prevails in the provincial part of France than in Germany or England.

The French, though sufficiently ready to make partial admissions of their national defects, are by no means prepared to go so far as the present author; or to listen, in this their day
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of humiliation, to the praises of their neighbours. Accordingly, Mad. de S. has drawn on her work no slight share of animadversion by her magnificent encomiums on our constitution; by her eulogy (vol. iii. chap. 15.) on Lord Wellington; and, above all, by the remarkable expression (vol. iii. p. 312.) that 'if it were indispensable that one of the two nations should be destroyed, her voice would be given for the preservation of the one which can reckon a hundred years of liberty.' "*Elle a sacrifiée*," say the Parisians, "*la France à l'Angleterre*."

Influence of Women in France.—Our books on France have long been filled with accounts of the sprightliness and gaiety of the fair sex in that country, but we have as yet no adequate idea of their influence in matters of business. The composition, by a female, of such a work as the one now under consideration, is in itself a matter of no little moment: but the events which it relates of other women place in a striking light the activity and importance of the sex in France. Had M. Necker continued in office in 1781, he might, says Mad. de S., have accomplished much; for he would have proceeded with the full benefit of the patronage of the Queen: but, when recalled in 1788, this advantage was no longer possessed by him, because Marie Antoinette considered him as brought in by public opinion, in contradiction to herself and her husband. M. de Calonne is stated to have owed (vol. i. p. 110.) his reputation to the dazzling impression made by his confident language on the ladies who influenced the court; and, when his extravagance necessitated his dismissal, his successor, the Archbishop of Toulouse, was indebted for his place to the recommendation of the Queen. These appointments are not to be attributed to the personal partiality of Louis XVI. for his consort, so much as to the general impression in Paris, and throughout France, that females are perfectly intitled to take a part in politics. The revolutionists, after the battle of Waterloo, dreaded the counsels of the King's brother or his nephews far less than those of the Duchess of Angoulême; and even Bonaparte was not always victorious in a conflict with a fair antagonist.

'I saw him one day approach a French lady distinguished for her beauty, her wit, and the ardour of her opinions. He placed himself straight before her, like the stiffest of the German generals, and said to her, "Madam, I don't like women to meddle with politics."—"You are right, General," replied she; "but in a country where they lose their heads, it is natural for them to desire to know the reason." Bonaparte made no answer. He is a man who is calmed by an effective resistance.'

Applications to ministers, or to persons who have the disposal of patronage in France, have long been and are still often made by females. An officer, either in the civil or the military line, who expected employment or a pension, seldom preferred the request in person: but his wife, a married sister, or some other female relation, generally undertook the task. This singular practice had its origin not in that lax morality which so many of our countrymen attribute to the "Gallic fair," but to the obvious calculation that, in a country in which nothing went by established rule, solicitation effected so much, and deliberate reflection governed so little, a refusal was considerably less likely to be given to the one sex than the other. The literary women of France, such as Madame de Sevigné, Madame du Deffand, and in some measure Madame de Staël herself, owed their reputation to their power of conversation. How different this from the source of the fame of Mrs. Hannah More, Miss Baillie, Miss Edgeworth, and other literary females among us; who, as it is truly said by the present author, (vol. iii. p. 297.) 'live much in retirement, and confine their influence to their books.'

English and French Society compared. — Mad. de S. is no admirer of the large circles assembled in the visiting season at the houses of London fashionables. The 600 or 800 persons, who are collected occasionally in the rooms of a lady of rank, seemed to her to elbow each other like persons in the pit of a theatre; to the exclusion of all conversation, and indeed of all exertion, except that of moving through the drawing-room, and of regaining the carriages without accident. French society is much more exclusive; and the spirit that rendered its circles select was favourable to elegance and amusement. The practice of repairing to the country, or at least of passing six months there, is also much less general in Paris; genteel and fashionable society being found in that city during the whole year. The great point of contrast, however, lies in the part borne by women in conversation; in France, they remain at table during the whole afternoon, take a lead in the conversation, and consider it as incumbent on them to prevent it from languishing. The topics discussed are seldom political, at least not of that grave kind of politics which would be uninteresting to the sex. Conversation is studied both by men and women as an art: it leads to reputation in the case of both, and with the former not unfrequently to public employment. People of talents without fortune are not only admitted into the highest circles in Paris, but they may venture to entertain in return; because,

because, in that sprightly capital, amusing anecdotes are accounted a fair substitute for a bad dinner. The French consider the English as reserved in society, and are surprised that we do not converse freely with each other without the formality of an introduction: they remark, likewise, with some degree of wonder, that the younger branches do not live after marriage in the same house with their parents; and that near relations do not often dine together without invitation. It is with much approbation, however, that they observe the regard to truth that is so honourably illustrative of the English character; a feature in which, says Mad. de Staël, her countrymen will not rival us until the publicity of national business, and those discussions by which men arrive "at the bottom" of every thing, shall have shewn them that dissimulation leads to nothing but the mortification of exposure.

After this copious report of the topics treated in the present work, we come to the less pleasant task of animadverting on it as a literary composition; and first as to style. Madame de S., in her ardour to convey the sentiments most prominent in her mind, has been by no means sufficiently careful to render them easily intelligible to her readers. Her composition is that of an author actuated by forcible emotions, who does not stay to connect the reasoning by its subordinate links, nor attend to those minor illustrations that are necessary sometimes for perspicuity, and at other times for conviction. Her arrangement, also, is not careful; and her expressions are frequently obscure. Of this fault, the most striking example is given in the 11th chapter of her first volume, when treating of the history of the French constitution; and a similar want of method prevails in many other parts. The farther defects of her style consist in frequent repetitions, and the assumption of a tone of amplification that is better suited to a work of imagination than of reasoning: which give to her book a sentimental cast, and, with the severer class of readers, have unluckily the effect of creating a distrust of the validity of her reasoning. We select a short paragraph, which, in point of argument, affords a striking specimen of her powers of intellect; while the words marked in italics appear an appropriate instance of the defect just noticed in her manner.

‘ Men cannot be governed by reckoning always on devotedness and sacrifices; but when the whole of the institutions of a country are such that there is an advantage in being upright, there results from it a certain habit of integrity which becomes engraven on every heart: it is transmitted by remembrance, the air we breathe

is impregnated with it, and we are no longer under the necessity of reflecting on the inconveniences of every kind that would ensue from certain improprieties; the force of example is a sufficient preservative from them.'

That warmth of imagination, however, which so often carried Mad. de S. into a tone too lofty for a work of reasoning, supplied her at times with lively and beautiful images; as specimens of which we give a few detached sentences.

'*Religion.* — Nations have no sincere piety, except in countries where the doctrine of the church is unconnected with political dogmas, — in countries where the priests exercise no power over the state, — in countries, in short, where a man may love God and Christianity with all his soul, without losing, and still more without obtaining any worldly advantage by the manifestation of this sentiment.' —

'*Bonaparte.* — His despotism was such, that he had reduced men to be but the echo of himself; and his own voice returning to him from all sides, he was alone amidst the crowd that encircled him.' —

'The Bourbons have no choice but that of the friends of liberty: either they who have preserved that opinion unsullied since 1789; or they who, less advanced in years, follow it now; a new generation, which has arisen in these later times, and on whom our future hopes depend.

'Such men are called upon to terminate the Revolution by liberty, and it is the only possible close to that sanguinary tragedy. Every effort to sail against the torrent will but upset the bark; but let this torrent enter into channels, and all the country which it laid waste will be fertilized.'

It would be difficult to find, either in ancient or modern times, a female who has given greater proofs of a masculine mind than this lady has afforded: a fact which is apparent not only in her choice of subject, but in the energy with which she every where treats it. Amid so many marks of vigour, the difficulty is to find out occasional traces of feminine character: but these are to be discovered both in a general tendency to give a licence to the imagination, and in some few remarks of inferior consequence; such as her fanciful terrors (vol. i. p. 159.) on crossing a wood after her father's nomination to the ministry; her comments (vol. ii. p. 200.) on Bonaparte's personal appearance; and her curious notion (vol. iii. p. 204.) that even brute animals are the most humanely treated in a land of liberty. Passing from this to a much more important topic, her manner of stating historical facts, most readers will think that she is too severe (vol. i. p. 35.) on Louis XIV.; they will remark that the assassination
of

Of Henry IV., justly ascribed (in vol. ii. p. 42.) to a 'fanatic without an accomplice,' is declared in another passage (vol. i. p. 20.) to have been the work of the 'atrocious League;' and they will perceive an evident disposition to exaggerate in all that relates to her father, whose talents are the theme of incessant eulogy, without any of the qualifying admissions that are recorded in a former volume of our Review (vol. lxxx. N. S. p. 23.) from a source of undeniable authenticity, the Letters of Madame Necker to Gibbon.

These, doubtless, are serious defects, and will induce many persons to question the general soundness of the views of Mad. de S. Her inferences, it must be admitted, are not formed by the rules of Bacon; nor do they rest on such authority as if she had made a point of reasoning from a careful and patient investigation of the facts of history. They have, however, another and an almost equally stable foundation; viz. the purity of heart evinced in every page of her performance. Many of her favourite doctrines are similar to those which it has been the steady object of our work to inculcate: we allude to such topics as the ruinous tendency of war; the importance of directing our energies to civil improvement; and in particular the necessity of obtaining a fairer national representation, by lessening the preponderance of the aristocracy in our parliamentary elections: — but we are influenced by no co-incidence of opinion, when we repeat that her views are calculated equally to interest the generous feelings of her readers, and to stand the test of mature and deliberate examination. Her language is often inflated, and her arguments are badly urged: but her results are judicious, and have received confirmation in these days of increasing liberality from the testimony of practical statesmen. With regard to war, the crowned heads assembled at Aix-la-Chapelle have lately given reason to hope that certain political disputes may in future be referred to a congress, instead of being made the subject of an appeal to arms. In reference to English politics, can any thing be more conformable to sound judgment than the liberal and pacific feelings towards the Americans, which are recommended to us by Madame de S.; and are not the majority of our Opposition-members by this time satisfied, that she was right in regretting that they did not long since hold a decided tone against Bonaparte as an enemy to all free institutions? Her great object is to recommend the adoption of the English constitution in France; and the basis of her argument is that national character is formed not by climate, soil, or other physical causes, but by the progressive effect of laws and government. She is extremely anxious to improve the situation

ation of the French, by making them profit from their dear-bought experience and the example of the English: but she has no ambitious views, no wish for the extension of their territory, or for a renewal of their political influence: all is directed to the comfort of the people, the establishment of law, and the prevention of future dissension.

Several of the objections urged, and with justice, against the former works of the Baroness, are not applicable to the present volumes: they contain much less of speculation; and they evince that the lapse of years had tempered the ardour of her imagination. In short, with regard to general views, she is not undeserving of being compared to our most philosophic historian; with the distinction, however, that, while Hume develops the workings of the mind in individuals, Mad. de S. looks more to the mass, and elucidates the motives that actuate collective bodies.

The rank and reputation of Mad. de Staël gave her opportunities of conversing with several crowned heads, particularly with Louis XVIII. and the Emperor Alexander. In the former, it appears, she admired a wide extent of information, which was the result of great application and a long command of time: in the latter, she was struck with an ardour for the cause of liberality, and a total absence of the stateliness which is so rigidly kept up by most persons of his rank. He talks quite differently from the majority of sovereigns, has no recourse to formal questions, and discourses with men of different opinions like one who can enter the lists of conversation without reserve. Bernadotte she considers as a ruler of great prudence and sagacity; and his conduct, when he abstained from active operations at particular seasons, (such as March 1814,) she ascribes not to vacillation, or an intention to deceive, but to a sound and deliberate view of the interests of Sweden and France.

‘ When news were brought to him that the French had entered Moscow, the envoys of the different powers, who were then in his palace at Stockholm, were thunderstruck; he alone declared firmly that, from the date of that event, the campaign was lost to the conquerors; and, addressing himself to the Austrian envoy, at a time when the troops of that power still formed a part of the army of Napoleon, “ You may,” he said, “ write to your Emperor that Napoleon is lost, although the capture of Moscow seems the greatest exploit in his military career.” I was near him when he expressed himself in this way, and did not, I confess, put entire faith in his predictions. But his profound knowledge of the art of war disclosed to him an event at that time least expected by others.’

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We cannot close our report of this publication without pointing out a few of its most important conclusions. In the first place, the fair writer has satisfactorily proved that the despotic part of the French government was the result of recent usurpation, and no more sanctioned by the original constitution of the country than the encroachments of our Charles I. or the mad projects of our James II. She has next shewn, or rather brought to recollection, that the first movers of the French Revolution were not the middling or lower classes, but the *noblesse*, the members of the parliament of Paris, and in some measure the clergy. A farther and more important inference from her work regards the practicability of establishing liberty in France on a solid basis; and here we invite those foreigners, who return from visiting that country with strong impressions of the national fickleness and credulity, to study the pages before us, and to decide whether their author be not justified in maintaining that these feelings have had their origin in the total exclusion of the nation from the management of its own affairs. Time, doubtless, is necessary to give the French a proper share of public spirit, and fixed rules of judging in questions of government: but that in point of intention, at least, they are well prepared, is apparent from the moderation of their wishes in other respects. No nation is more deeply impressed with the folly of seeking an extension of territory; nor did their voice even second the ambitious views of their government, when their armies were sent across the Rhine or the Pyrenees.

It remains to add a short biographical notice of M. Necker and Mad. de Staël. The former was son of a professor at Geneva, and followed the mercantile or rather the banking line at Paris, where he acquired a large fortune; preserving, however, a philosophic turn amid the bustle of business and the enjoyment of wealth. His matrimonial choice was indicative of his habits of reflection and disinterestedness; he married Madlle. Curchod, the daughter of a Protestant clergyman in a very retired part of Switzerland, whose leisure had afforded him the means of giving her an excellent education. It was this lady who early engaged the affections of Gibbon; and she might have become his conjugal partner, (see M. R. vol. lxxx. p. 22.) had not our historian's father insisted on his looking to a connection of rank and fortune. Gibbon's relinquishment of so attractive an object excited the indignant exclamations of Rousseau: but the lady felt the propriety of his obedience to paternal admonition, and preserved for him all the affection of a sister, even when the elevation of her husband had made a surpriz

the scale of her fortune. It was in 1776 that M. Necker was called by Louis XVI. to fill the station of finance-minister: which, after having occupied it during five years, he resigned in 1781; and, living in Paris or the neighbourhood, he gave his time chiefly to political and financial disquisition. Called again to office in September 1788, he passed a very stormy interval of nearly two years, and finally retired in September 1790. His only daughter, the heiress of his fortune and the object of his uninterrupted care, having attained woman's estate, was now married to the Baron de Staël, a Swedish nobleman, ambassador from that country at the French court. She consequently resided at Paris, while her parents lived in Switzerland; and, though she was happily absent during the worst epoch of Jacobin proscription, at other times of alarm she was on the spot, and had opportunities of displaying all the sympathy of her character in succouring several friends who would otherwise have been victims of the massacres of September 1792, or of the summary sentences that followed the 18th of Fructidor, 1799. At last, in 1802, the publication of an obnoxious work by M. Necker, and the democratic freedom of her conversation, made Bonaparte send her into exile. Having remained with her father until his death in 1804, she then travelled into Germany, staid there several years, and prepared her well-known work on the manners and literature of that empire. Returning to Switzerland, she continued in that country till 1812; when, Bonaparte's tyranny becoming more and more inquisitorial, and the occupancy of continental Europe by his arms progressively extending, she determined, before it was too late, to repair to Russia: there she saw the Emperor Alexander; and, on the advance of the French armies, she went into Sweden, where she remained during the winter of 1812-13. In the next summer, she came over to England, and passed the succeeding winter among the highest circles in London; an intercourse which, joined to her previous acquaintance with our language and customs, supplied the materials of the concluding portion of the volumes before us. She had purposed to extend her travels throughout the northern part of our island, when the re-establishment of the Bourbons, and other circumstances of rather unexpected occurrence, recalled her to Paris: whence the return of Bonaparte from Elba drove her, both distracted with anxiety both on public and private grounds, once more to Switzerland. Repairing subsequently to Paris, to complete this work, and to enjoy that converse on literary and political topics which formed the delight of her life, she became subject to bad health, and died in the beginning of 1817.

ART. IV. *Political and Literary Anecdotes of his own Times.*
 By Dr. Wm. King, Principal of St. Mary Hall, Oxford. Crown
 8vo. pp. 252. 8s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1818.

IT is with no inconsiderable pleasure that we take up a volume, purporting to contain some relics of Dr. William King; a name once indeed well-known, but which seemed likely ere long to sink into oblivion, because few written testimonies recorded his character and attainments. Mr. Chalmers, however, has in his Biography collected some notices of his life, which the editor of these Anecdotes has transferred to his prefatory advertisement.

Dr. King was born in 1685, became a member of Balliol College, Oxford, in 1701, took the degree of LL.D. in 1715, was secretary to the Duke of Ormond and Earl of Arran respectively, when Chancellors of that University, and in 1718 became Principal of St. Mary Hall; which situation he held until the time of his decease in 1763, at the advanced age of seventy-eight.

A life thus constituted bears some presumptive evidence of a scene of quiet, and an even tenor of occupation, unmolested by the contentions of the busy world without the pale of the University: but such presumptions, in the present case, would lead to conclusions little agreeing with the real truth. Whether Dr. King would have preferred publicity of character to literary ease, and academic leisure, is now a point of no importance; since the former, whether by accident or choice, was evidently the sphere in which he moved. An early attempt to represent the University in parliament, in which he was not successful, coupled with the strong interest which he took in many of the leading questions of the day, as also the vigour of thought and boldness of expression that are observable in some of his compositions, bespeak an active and ambitious mind; and few men have ever become so obnoxious to the animosities engendered by political zeal, as Dr. King was, without having invited such attacks at some period of their life, in a greater degree than a philosophical evening to a long day of existence would lead a casual observer to infer.

The Principal of St. Mary Hall was a warm friend to the exiled house of Stuart; an affair then of such recent interest, as to leave no man the option of neutrality. He was indeed in the Jacobite party a man of no mean account, the influence of talents placing him on a level with persons of higher rank and dignity. Like many others, his literary speculations were perpetually canvassed with a reference to his

his political opinions; and this was a constant source of disquiet to him, which the pretence of indifference cannot conceal. Though it is much to be wished that the literary critic would cease to identify himself with the party-zealot, this would be a happy state of things of which passing events render us more and more despairing; since party-virulence, to the detriment of all the best interests of literature, seems to be daily extending its influence over the compositions of the most popular writers.

Of the share which Dr. King took in the politics of his times, or of the extent of his views as they regarded the exiled family, we have no accurate information: but that he was in a constant course of most confidential intercourse with the chief Jacobites, and with Prince Charles himself, is satisfactorily proved by his own written record. Whatever were his political objects, he declares that he felt no shame at the disclosure of them; and he promised to lay before the public a candid account of all his share in the transactions of his times: but such a promise, given at the age of seventy-six, offered slender expectations of its own fulfilment, and it probably was not ever redeemed. In his latter years, he was charged with political apostacy, because, early in the present reign, he had been seen at the court of a prince of the house of Hanover: but to such attacks he replies in one of the 'Anecdotes' before us, that he went to court not as an individual, but as a member of the University, attending in his place on a public occasion. A justification of this sort, however, seems unnecessary in Dr. King; who has elsewhere fairly and openly avowed that the cause of the Stuarts had before this time become desperate; and who seems to have considered that the adherents to that cause had been absolved from their obligations to it, by the indiscretions, mismanagement, and ingratitude of those whom they supported. It is, at the same time, but an act of common candour to allow that many men of mature years may doubt the right of conspiring to alter an established government, of which they felt the effects to be generally beneficial, although they may honestly have opposed the principle on which that power was established; and such, probably, may have been the view of Dr. King. That the principle itself is just, few will deny; it is only brought into discredit by the assumption of it in persons who are actuated by less honourable motives.

Dr. King lived with the great and learned of his day, and was in correspondence with them; and, among others, we recollect that some of his letters are preserved with those of Dean Swift, in which he gives a pleasant description of his
habits

habits and occupations at Oxford. His works were not numerous, and mostly of temporary interest. He greatly excelled in the writing of elegant Latin, and seem to have been more celebrated on that score than any cotemporary in the University. His playful "*Somnium Academicum*" is preserved in this little volume. The pieces published under his name were indeed chiefly in the Latin language: others of a political and satirical tendency were attributed to him, but were mostly denied; though, in consequence of such charges, much scurrility was heaped on him by his adversaries. Against these assailants he published his "Apology," in 4to.: but on which side truth preponderated it is now needless to discuss, and impossible to ascertain.

Although it does not appear that Dr. King was ever his own biographer, he undertook the difficult task of delineating his own character, in the very singular Latin epitaph which he left behind him; and which, according to his desire, was inscribed to his memory in the chapel of St. Mary Hall. It will be found in the last page of the volume before us: but, if we recollect rightly, some slight variations from the copy here printed occur in the inscription as it now stands in the chapel. Whether the writer gave a true character of himself, we can now scarcely ascertain: but strong internal evidence appears in this composition that at least he attempted that duty; and, if the picture be not a good likeness, we should be more inclined to attribute the failure to unskilfulness in so difficult a science than to intention.

The story of the present volume is simply this. A gentleman, who was detained during the late war as a prisoner in France, met there with two English ladies, who were relatives of the writer of these Anecdotes, and were in possession of them. Their publication has been the consequence of this acquaintance; and it seems that Dr. King designed them to see the light: since, in a short preface, he describes himself as sitting down in his seventy-sixth year, to beguile the infirmities incident to old age by this occasional occupation. The Anecdotes themselves contain remarks on books and authors; reflections on men and manners; table-talk; and some curious and interesting particulars of the writer's connection with the Pretender.

On this last subject, Dr. King has enlarged more than on any other; and, in his delineation of the personal character of the Pretender, he clearly wishes that his readers should recognize his own apology for remitting his exertions in the cause to which he had been attached.

‘As I can in some measure account for the defection of the leaders of the Jacobite party, I shall probably render an acceptable service to many of my countrymen and satisfy the enquiries of posterity by publishing an anecdote, which I am now under no obligations to conceal, and which as the affairs of Britain are at present circumstanced, it would, in my opinion, be criminal in me to suppress.

‘September 1750, I received a note from my Lady Primrose, who desired to see me immediately. As soon as I waited on her, she led me into her dressing-room, and presented me to ———.* If I was surprised to find him there, I was still more astonished when he acquainted me with the motives which had induced him to hazard a journey to England at this juncture. The impatience of his friends who were in exile had formed a scheme which was impracticable; but although it had been as feasible as they had represented it to him, yet no preparation had been made, nor was any thing ready to carry it into execution. He was soon convinced that he had been deceived, and therefore, after a stay in London of five days only, he returned to the place from whence he came. As I had some long conversations with him here, and for some years after held a constant correspondence with him, not indeed by letters but by messengers †, who were occasionally dispatched to him; and as during this intercourse I informed myself of all particulars relating to him, and of his whole conduct, both in public and private life, I am perhaps as well qualified as any man in England to draw a just character of him; and I impose this task on myself not only for the information of posterity, but for the sake of many worthy gentlemen whom I shall leave behind me, who are at present attached to his name, and who have formed their ideas of him from public report, but more particularly from those great actions which he performed in Scotland.’

This passage constitutes a preface to a detailed account of the character of Charles. As it is drawn by a person who undoubtedly had the opportunity as well as the ability to appreciate the object of it, we should be glad to extract it: but it would exceed our limits; and we propose, therefore, to collect a few of the leading traits in a more brief but a connected form.

After a description of the Prince's person, Dr. King tells us that his apprehension was certainly quick, and that he could speak French, Italian, and English, but the latter with a foreign accent: that his education was decidedly bad and neglected; that his tutor had been a Protestant, and, although educated at Rome, had no knowledge of the fine arts

* The Pretender.’

† These were not common couriers, but gentlemen of fortune, honour, and veracity, and on whose relations I could entirely depend.’

or the *belles lettres*. It is a singular fact, if true, that Dr. King found the Prince unacquainted with the history and constitution of the country which he claimed as his birth-right. As to his religion, the Doctor states that he was so little of a bigot, as to have rendered it probable that he would have conformed to any established system. The qualities of his heart are detailed in the following passage; and we are sorry to read it from the pen of one who had become cool in a cause which he had once espoused with great warmth.

‘ I never heard him express any noble or benevolent sentiments, the certain indications of a great soul and a good heart; or discover any sorrow or compassion for the misfortunes of so many worthy men who had suffered in his cause. But the most odious part of his character is his love of money, a vice which I do not remember to have been imputed by our historians to any of his ancestors, and is the certain index of a base and little mind. I know it may be urged in his vindication, that a prince in exile ought to be an economist. And so he ought; but nevertheless his purse should be always open, as long as there is any thing in it, to relieve the necessities of his friends and adherents. King Charles the Second, during his banishment, would have shared the last pistole in his pocket with his little family. But I have known this gentleman with two thousand Louis-d'ors in his strong box pretend he was in great distress, and borrow money from a lady in Paris, who was not in affluent circumstances. His most faithful servants, who had closely attended him in all his difficulties, were ill rewarded. Two Frenchmen, who had left every thing to follow his fortune, who had been sent as couriers through half Europe, and executed their commissions with great punctuality and exactness, were suddenly discharged without any faults imputed to them, or any recompence for their past service. To this spirit of avarice may be added his insolent manner of treating his immediate dependants, very unbecoming a great prince, and a sure prognostic of what might be expected from him if ever he acquired sovereign power. Sir J. Harrington, and Colonel Goring, who suffered themselves to be imprisoned with him, rather than desert him, when the rest of his family and attendants fled, were afterwards obliged to quit his service on account of his illiberal behaviour.’

An attachment to low society is asserted to have been his vice and his bane, especially as it related to his mistress; and the consequent disclosure of all private communications, to persons of such a description as to be wholly unworthy of any trust, is here declared to be the cause of the defection of all people of consideration from his party.

Anecdotes collected for publication, as we may fairly conceive these to have been by their original author, naturally shew those turns of thought into which his mind is apt to relapse, in seasons of disengagement from more serious occupation. A horror of avarice, and some dislike of parsimony, seem, under this view of the case, to have been prevalent with Dr. King; indeed, in his own character of himself, he tells us that he was "*imprudens et improvidus, comis et benevolus.*" To this turn of mind we owe many anecdotes in this little volume: it partly led him to doubt much of the expediency of marriage among our clergy; and he seems to have entertained nearly the same sentiments which Queen Elizabeth expressed on this head, though founded on better grounds, perhaps, than those of her Majesty. The subsequent is an amusing if not a convincing passage:

‘ Butler, who was predecessor to the present Bishop of Durham, being applied to on some occasion for a charitable subscription, asked his steward what money he had in the house. The steward informed him, “there was five hundred pounds.” “Five hundred pounds!” said the Bishop: “what a shame for a Bishop to have such a sum in his possession;” and ordered it all to be immediately given to the poor. That spirit of charity and benevolence which possessed this excellent man hath not appeared in any other part of the hierarchy since the beginning of the present century. His successor, Dr. Trevor, possessed of a large estate, besides the revenue of his rich bishopric, has a different turn of mind, but in common with many of his own order. To speak freely, I know nothing that has brought so great a reproach on the Church of England as the avarice and ambition of our bishops. Chandler, Bishop of Durham, Willis, Bishop of Winchester, Potter, Archbishop of Canterbury, Gibson and Sherlock, Bishops of London, all died shamefully rich, some of them worth more than 100,000*l.* I must add to these my old antagonist Gilbert, predecessor to Drummond, the present Archbishop of York. Some of these prelates were esteemed great divines (and I know they were learned men), but they could not be called good Christians. The great wealth which they heaped up, the fruits of their bishoprics, and which they left to enrich their families, was not their own; it was due to God, to the church, to their poor brethren. The history of the good *Samaritan*, which was so particularly explained by Christ himself to his disciples, ought to be a monitory to all their successors. I knew Burnett, Bishop of Salisbury: he was a furious party-man, and easily imposed on by any lying spirit of his own faction; but he was a better pastor than any man who is now seated on the bishops’ bench. Although he left a large family when he died, three sons and two daughters (if I rightly remember), yet he left them nothing more than their mother’s fortune. He always declared, that he should think himself guilty of the greatest crime, if he
were

were to raise fortunes for his children out of the revenue of his Bishopric. It was no small misfortune to the cause of Christianity in this kingdom, that when we reformed from popery, our clergy were permitted to marry; from that period their only care (which was natural, and must have been foreseen) was to provide for their wives and children; this the dignitaries, who had ample revenues, could easily effect, with the loss, however, of that respect and veneration which they formerly received on account of their hospitality and numerous charities; but the greatest part of the inferior clergy were incapable of making a provision for sons and daughters, and soon left families of beggars in every part of the Kingdom.

In reverting to Dr. King's epitaph on himself, we may remark that it presents us with these expressions: "*Permultos habui amicos, at veros, stabiles, gratos, (quæ fortasse est gentis nostræ culpa,) perpaucissimos.*" We are naturally apt to revolt a little from an observation so much calculated to wound our national feelings; and we generally confess that as a body we are egotistical, but individually we are not very much inclined to make the same admission. One of the anecdotes forms a fair commentary on the above lines in the inscription:

'A perfect friendship, as it is described by the ancients, can only be contracted between men of the greatest virtue, generosity, truth, and honour. Such a friendship requires that all things should be in common; and that one friend should not only venture, but be ready to lay down his life for the other. According to this definition of friendship, Cicero observes that all the histories, from the earliest ages down to his time, had not recorded more than two or three pair of friends; and I doubt whether at this day we could add two or three pair more to the number. In our country, which is governed by money, and where every man is in pursuit of his own interest, it would be in vain to look for a real friendship. Our companions, and our common acquaintance, those especially with whom we live in any degree of familiarity, we call our friends; and we are always ready to give them such marks of our friendship as will not put us to any great inconvenience, or subject us to any great expence. If an Englishman, like the Greek philosopher, were to bequeath his wife and children to be maintained by one of his rich friends, he would be deemed *non compos*. If a man would long preserve his friendships, I mean those imperfect friendships which are generally contracted in this country, he should be particularly careful to have no money-concerns with his friends, at least to owe them no great obligations on that account. Most of the breaches of friendship which I have remarked, as likewise the family-feuds which are now subsisting in England, are to be ascribed to this cause. The latter indeed are not always to be avoided, but the first always may. I was talking on this subject with a learned

foreigner, who seemed to doubt the truth of my general observation, and thought my countrymen did not deserve the character which I had imputed to them. He could not conceive why there was not the greatest warmth and activity in our friendships, when we were so ready to relieve the helpless and indigent, and had given such proofs of our humanity and charity as were not equalled by any nation in Europe. And then he reckoned all the hospitals which were supported by annual and voluntary contributions. I acknowledged this to be a kind of a contradiction in our manners, but I did not tell him that I imputed no small proportion of these extraordinary charities to the vanity of the donors.'

Dr. K.'s observations on books do not appear to us to present much novelty: for they relate chiefly to classical authors, and to passages so often discussed as to render all farther observation superfluous. Yet we discern an ingenuity in the application of such remarks to passing events, which in more than one instance is highly amusing; and which gives us a well-told story, with a very happy application of it, from materials whence it seemed impossible to derive any thing having a claim to novelty. When discoursing of the *Æneid* of Virgil, Dr. King observes:

'In the beginning of the first book, Juno makes a visit to Æolus, and desires him to raise a storm and destroy the Trojan fleet, because she hated the whole nation on account of the judgment of Paris, or, as she was pleased to express herself, because the Trojans were her enemies. *Gens inimica mihi, &c.* Juno was conscious that she asked a god to oblige her by an act which was both unjust and cruel, and therefore she accompanied her request with the offer of Deiopeia, the most beautiful nymph in her train: a powerful bribe, and such as she imagined Æolus could not resist. She was not disappointed: Æolus accepted her offer, and executed her commands as far as he was able. What I have to observe here, in the first place, is the necessity of that short speech, in which Juno addresses herself to Æolus. She had no time to lose. The Trojan fleet was in the Tuscan sea, sailing with a fair wind, and in a few hours would probably have been in a safe harbour. Æolus therefore answered in a few words as the goddess had addressed herself to him. But his answer is very curious. He takes no notice of the offer of Deiopeia, for whom upon any other occasion he would have thanked Juno upon his knees. But now, when she was given, and accepted by him as a bribe, and as the wages of cruelty and injustice, he endeavoured by his answer to avoid that imputation, and pretended he had such a grateful sense of the favours which Juno had formerly conferred on him, when she introduced him to Jupiter's table, that it was his duty to obey her commands on all occasions:

Thus,

*Tuus, O Regina, quod optes,
Explorare labor ; mihi jussa capessere fas est.*

And thus insinuated even to Juno herself, that this was the sole motive of his ready compliance with her request. I am here put in mind of something similar, which happened in Sir Robert Walpole's administration. He wanted to carry a question in the House of Commons, to which he knew there would be great opposition, and which was disliked by some of his own dependents. As he was passing through the Court of Requests, he met a member of the contrary party, whose avarice he imagined would not reject a large bribe. He took him aside, and said, "Such a question comes on this day; give me your vote, and here is a bank bill of 2000l.," which he put into his hands. The member made him this answer: "Sir Robert, you have lately served some of my particular friends; and when my wife was last at court, the King was very gracious to her, which must have happened at your instance. I should therefore think myself very ungrateful (*putting the bank bill into his pocket*) if I were to refuse the favour you are now pleased to ask me." This incident, if wrought up by a man of humour, would make a pleasant scene in a political farce.

We must now preclude ourselves, unwillingly, from farther quotation; and, with one or two observations, collected at large, we shall close our notice of this entertaining little book. — Dr. King tells us that Bp. Atterbury, Lord Stair, who was ambassador in France in the early part of the reign of George the Second, and Dr. James Monro, who was many years physician of Bethlem Hospital, were the only persons, whom he recollects, eminently possessed of the quality of *presence of mind*. The remark, as it regards the individuals, is curious: but, as it refers to society in general, it depends on a scale with which we are not acquainted. — In 1738, Dr. K. had written a political satire in Latin; his political opponents naturally found fault with his style, as well as his argument; and ultimately some professed scholars took a share in the literary parts of the question. Maittaire marked eleven expressions as unclassical: but Dr. King proved the purity of them, from the works of authors of which Maittaire had recently published new editions, and to which he had attached copious indexes!

In conclusion, it may be matter of amusement to the resident in Oxford to be told that the little garden, inclosed in the quadrangle of St. Mary Hall, and the little dining room projecting into it from the house of the Principal, are specimens, such as they are, of the taste of Dr. William King. Small as they appear to us, and scarcely equal to become appendages to a country-parsonage, they were not

thus insignificant in the eyes of their projector; who details to Dr. Swift, with much complacency and self-congratulation, his architectural improvements, and the prospects of his own garden.

ART. V. *A full and correct Account of the Military Occurrences of the late War between Great Britain and the United States of America; with an Appendix and Plates.* By William James, Author of "A full and correct Account of the chief Naval Occurrences." 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 10s. Boards. Black and Co. 1818.

NOTWITHSTANDING the extensive sphere of operations in which the army of Great Britain has been engaged, during, and for a length of time previous to, the occupation of the Gallic diadem by the Napoleon dynasty, the subject of military history has seldom been treated by the natives of this "warlike isle." Ephemeral publications, relating chiefly to battles in which the British troops have gained the hard-earned laurel, have been sufficiently numerous: but, in general, these works possess very little interest, and are mere compositions from the gazettes and journals of the periods which they attempt to describe. Such may be said to be, almost universally, the case with those performances which relate to the actions on the fields of Planchénoit and Waterloo, and to the invasion of France by the armies of the allies. The compilers of these voluminous accounts are also, in most cases, very ill prepared for the office which they have assumed; since, from their limited knowledge of the military sciences, they are unable to form opinions, or give tactical notions, of the various intricate movements and results which experienced leaders have undertaken and attained: indeed, they are usually men who have never ranged themselves under the "sanguine banners of the mighty Mars."

With these facts before us, and under the certainty that scarcely one of the histories of the wars of England has proceeded from the pen of a leader whose experience and military knowledge qualified him for such a performance, we did not take up the work now before us with a predisposition to regard it as a scientific detail of the events which its title professes to describe: but, as the author had already executed with success the difficult task of writing a naval history of the war between Great Britain and the United States*, we opened his pages with more satisfaction than we should have

* For an account of this work, see M. R. vol. lxxxv. p. 311.

felt had this been a first publication. Though Mr. James has not served in the navy, industrious research and unremitted attention have rendered him a sufficient judge of naval affairs to enable him to compose a very good account of the above-named actions, on that element in which the glory of Britain's warlike genius shines so conspicuously. We are, therefore, disposed to make some exception in his favour, from our clause against unmilitary authors of military works; and to grant that he constitutes a good *locum tenens* for those officers, whose business it may be said to be to transmit to posterity an account of the warlike achievements in which the land-forces of our country have been engaged, during the most arduous struggles that have ever been witnessed on the comparatively pacific shores of the new world.

Various performances have issued from the American press concerning the details of the late war, and some of them possess considerable interest: but a violent national and even party-spirit disgraces most of their pages, and they are consequently little known to the British public; our booksellers being probably fearful of incurring the expence of importing works which, from this cause alone, would never meet with a sale.

It may be safely asserted as a general axiom,—which, however, like other propositions of the kind, must always be liable to exceptions,—that the charge of partiality cannot be so frequently laid against the historians of England as against those of other nations. Were we inclined to enter into discussions on this subject, and to trace the probable causes of such a fact, we should perhaps find that the general spirit of probity which prevails in this favoured isle, and the dismissal of an inflated style from the compositions of its best writers, are some of the circumstances which tend to such a result; and we may add that, the national glory and character being established on a firm and durable basis, no man feels the necessity of an attempt to persuade the world of their existence. An adherence to these principles of fairness will ever insure to the historical writer, in this and in all civilized countries, an attentive perusal of his work; and a departure from them must always lessen his dignity. The Americans, on the other hand, have one excuse in their favour, for attempting to paint their valiant deeds in glowing colours; they are a new nation, enrolled within the memory of man in the chronicles of kingdoms and of states; and, as they are rarely engaged (happily for them) in the devastating conflicts arising from jarring political interests, they are the more apt to magnify any victories, and the fortunate result of

any campaign. No European ever imagined that the leaders and soldiers of the new world can be placed on a par, in tactical exposition or strategical knowledge, with those of the old hemisphere: it is not possible that they should be; and, therefore, the idea does not require to be canvassed through the principal portion of two thick octavo volumes. On the other side, no men whose minds are not straitened by determined animosity, or who do not permit themselves to think, will ever suppose that the people of the United States of America are more deficient in natural courage than their European or British progenitors.

Having so far entered into a developement of our feelings, we have to state a preliminary difference with the present author, arising from the same causes which have operated in our minds against the American publications on the same subject:—he has adopted too much violence of discussion and of language, in confuting the American authors and their statements. In the preface, which is unusually long, his zeal has overstept the modest bounds which should always reign in literary disputes; and the whole prolegomena, if we may so apply the term, consist of a virulent attack on an insignificant American magazine* which has taken up the cudgels against Mr. James's former work. Surely there was no occasion to insert this vituperative essay, in a preface to a book having little other than a general connection with that about which Mr. James feels so much interested: it resembles, too strongly, the paper-war carried on between the *Halifax Journal* and the *Acadian Recorder*† on similar subjects during the American war. If we pass over these unpleasant passages in the preface, and hasten to that part of it which is intended to serve as an introduction to the work, it still harps on the American magazine. The author's manner of conducting his narrative is, however, well described; and he informs us that he has chosen his plans and maps more for the purpose of shewing the marches of the troops to combat, than to display the actions themselves: which, having generally taken place in woods, could not be so well detailed on a drawing. The battle near New Orleans is an exception, and seems to be the author's favourite. We shall hereafter speak more at large on this point.

We wish that Mr. James had always manifested the very proper feeling expressed in page xxx. of this preface; where he says that, as the two countries are at peace now, 'a strong

* The Analectic Magazine and Naval Chronicle.

† Two party-papers published in the Nova-Scotia capital.

motive exists for describing the events of the late war between them in language, if not courteous, temperate at least; and this without any reference to the notorious fact, that all American histories, from General Wilkinson's huge "Memoirs" down to the Grub-street "Analectic," pursue quite an opposite course.' This term, 'Grub-street,' comes in rather unfortunately so soon after Mr. James's declaration of forbearance. In the succeeding sentence, he says that he has endeavoured to command his feelings in scrutinizing the American accounts: but, if he should be betrayed into a warmth of expression in unravelling any design of marked atrocity, *some apology* is due to the general reader*; though the American may 'vent his rage upon those of his countrymen who, disgracing the name of historians, are the authors or abettors of all the calumnies which gave the provocation.' The concluding paragraph then informs us that whoever shall succeed in teaching American writers to venerate truth will have done ten times more for the republic than all their *mock heroes* put together. We can assure Mr. James that he will not cleanse the Augean stable, as long as he uses the handle instead of the sweeping portion of the broom.

The words '*Military Occurrences*' now occupy the running title; and very gladly do we turn from the *mélange* called a *Preface*, which we hope that the author will wholly omit in a future edition, and supplant by a sensible developement of the body of the work.

Patient research, knowledge of his subject, and a competent share of the qualities necessary to form a good writer, are visible throughout the ensuing pages of the two volumes; which, as far as they avoid personal and national reflections, form a valuable addition to our stock of military annals; containing, throughout, interesting details of many events during the war which have never met the public eye. It is with pleasure that we give this opinion, founded on a careful perusal of the book; and we sincerely hope that our remarks on the opposite side of the question may tend to remove some of its defects, so that thus the performance may become as amusing as it is useful.

Chapter I. details the origin of the late war with the United States, and gives at full length the manifestoes issued by the contending powers, with other circumstances attending the actual commencement of hostilities, which are fresh in the reader's recollection. In this part of the work, he can form

* We consider ourselves as *particular readers*, and therefore this apology does not disarm us.

very little notion of the author's style, forty pages being occupied by public documents, literally transcribed.

A more interesting subject is developed in Chapter II., where a military *coup d'œil* is taken of the lakes of Canada, and the posts on their shores. The ensuing extract gives an interesting outline of the great Niagara fall:

'The larger body of water flows between Upper Canada and Goat Island; at the upper end of which the broken water or *rapids* commence. Here the stream passes on both sides of the island, over a bed of rocks and precipices, with astonishing rapidity; till, having descended more than 50 feet, in the distance of half a mile, it falls, on the British side 157, and on the New York side 162 feet perpendicular.* From the cataract, the river is a continued rapid, half a mile in width, for about seven miles. At this point stand, opposite to each other, the villages of Queens-town and Lewistown.'

The whole of the military sketch of the two frontiers is ably delineated, and deserves an attentive perusal: the opening of the campaign is also extremely well detailed: but we observe some typographical errors, which seem to be attributable to the author, as they invariably and very frequently recur in the same manner; such as *plane* for *plain*, *situate* for *situated*, *artillerists* for *artillerymen*: the word *noithsome* *prisen* in p. 160. we do not find in the list of *errata*; and *waived* for *waived*, in p. 14., second volume, totally corrupts the sense.

If the following anecdote be authentic, we can here forgive the author for being 'betrayed into a warmth of expression:'

'In the pocket of Captain M'Culloch, of the American army, killed in the affair at Brownstown, between the Americans and the Indians, was found a letter addressed to his wife, in which this humane individual, this officer of a nation vaunting itself to the world as a pattern of civilization, states that, on the 15th of July, he killed an Indian, and had the pleasure of tearing the scalp from the head of the savage with his teeth.'

We know that the British commanders, particularly the gallant General Brock, made every effort to restrain the Indian allies from this shocking treatment of the dead and wounded: but we must, from good authority, coincide with Mr. James in saying that the American chiefs and officers offered large rewards to encourage their Indians to commit the most barbarous murders; and also that on the "*dead corpses*" of their adversaries there "*was such misuse, such*

* A reference is here given to a geological section of the ground, between and over which the Niagara river runs and falls.
beastly,

beastly, shameless transformation, by those" Indians "done, as may not be without much shame retold or spoken of."

Sir George Prevost's armistice being terminated by the refusal of the President to ratify it, the third chapter opens with a rational and clear account of the state of the American troops on the Niagara frontier at that epoch, their plan of invasion, and its derangement; embracing also the attack on Queenstown and the death of General Brock, with the surrender of the American army. Throughout his work, the author seems to lean to the opinion that a great part of the want of success in the Canadian war with the Americans arose from the undecided character of Sir George Prevost; who seldom took advantage by the "fore-lock," and whose career was marked with an excess of caution highly detrimental to the service: but this line of conduct may have been rendered necessary by his not having full powers.* A good biographical sketch of Sir Isaac Brock concludes this section.

The next chapter gives a detail of the remaining events of this first campaign; which are, in general, of little other consequence than as leading the reader to an understanding of the operations in the ensuing conflict. In the 125th page is an account of the inhuman conduct of a predatory band of Americans, who fired into an unprotected house in the middle of the night, and wounded a woman very severely; which we have personal reason to believe is but too true; and such actions as these too often disgraced their soldiers. Were we to trace the probable causes of the small share of compunction manifested by American troops, in firing at individuals or into solitary houses, we should perhaps find that many of them are accustomed, from the wandering lives which they lead on the borders of the great forests, and their terror from the Aborigines, to fire at and kill an Indian with as much indifference as the sportsman feels who levels at a partridge. In general, they are practised shots; and, being accustomed to carry on their warfare from behind trees and bushes, singling out their marks in cool blood, they arrive at that apparent apathy in human slaughter which so much disgusts a Briton in his warlike encounters with their troops. It would be absurd to say that a veteran soldier in the heat of action experiences many "compunctious visitings:" but certainly a marked difference exists between the conduct of English troops immediately after a battle, and that of the

* See also a suggestion in favour of Sir G. P., respecting the affair at Plattsburg, in our Review, vol. lxxxvii. pp. 383, 384. (Number for December last.)

undisciplined levies of the United States; and the effect is nearly evident from the above causes.

Chapter V. gives the opening of the campaign of 1813, a comparison of the American and British forces, and the attacks on Ogdensburgh, York, Fort George, Fort Erie, and lastly on Sackett's Harbour. We must be allowed to quote a paragraph concerning a very meritorious and suffering officer, whose conduct was conspicuous in the attack on the American batteries at Ogdensburgh.

'During the warmest of the fire upon the right column, Captain Jenkins * ordered his men to fix bayonets, and charge the American troops who were firing down upon them from the bank. While wading through the deep snow to get in contact with his enemy, the Captain received a grape-shot in the left arm, which shivered the bones, from the wrist nearly up to the shoulder. He, however, marched on at the head of his company, heedless of the acute pain caused by the splintered bones rubbing, at every step, against his sword-belt. Not many minutes afterwards, a case-shot tore most of the flesh from his right arm, and *down it dropped*† by his side: still did this heroic young officer run on with his men; cheering them to the assault, till, almost maddened with pain, he staggered on one side; and, after making several turns, evidently unconscious of what he was doing, fell from the loss of blood.'

This brave man has recovered from his wounds, and is now pensioned in his native country: but, we believe, he was never promoted.

We hasten to the unfortunate attack on Sackett's Harbour; and here we must observe that Mr. James gives a good specimen of the accuracy of his information, in detailing the first *reconnoissance* of that post by Sir George Prevost, which ended in an abortive attempt, and the non-appearance of which in any of the official papers was so much the subject of discussion in the army. It is extremely interesting, but too long for extraction into our pages, and we therefore refer our readers to the work itself:—but, with respect to the second attack, we cannot do better than copy a sentence from Mr. James. 'So hopeless did the Americans consider their case, that Lieutenant Chauncey had already set fire to the navy-barracks, the prize-schooner Duke of Gloucester, and the ship General Pike, and had completely destroyed the naval stores and provisions which had been captured at York.'—What motive caused the General to sound a retreat, when every

* Of the Glengarry regiment; and a native, we understand, of Frederic-town, the capital of New Brunswick.

† In this place, no *italics* occur in the original text.

individual in the army saw that they were clearly in possession of the place, we do not know: but we are disposed to coincide with the present author when he says, 'we have no right to find fault with the Americans, for considering as glorious to themselves an event which it would be idle to say was not, in a high degree, disgraceful to us.' The Americans claimed a splendid triumph; and, though the victory was ours, to them the honour is due.

Section VI. is dedicated to a variety of important operations that took place at this period on the shores of the upper lakes; among which the affair at the *Riviere Raisin* and the surrender of General Winchester's army are the most prominent, with the action of Miami, or Fort Meigs.

Chapter VII. returns to General Vincent's army at Burlington, and recounts the battle between that officer's troops and the Americans under Generals Chandler and Winder, at Stoney Creek: in which the Americans were conquered by a British force not more than one-fifth of their number, led by Colonel Harvey; who planned the attack, and to whom Mr. James dedicates his work, with a long monumental-looking inscription detailing this event.

As we approach the conclusion of the first volume, the subjects become very interesting. The viiith chapter describes Lake Champlain, with some of the military operations on its shores; and, returning to the frontiers of Canada, develops the operations of the large American army then threatening the British line: but too little notice is taken in this and the subsequent chapters of the fatal *Lake-fever* which prevailed among our troops. A description of its apparent causes, action, and effects, would have been interesting and proper.

The ixth and xth chapters terminate the first volume, and contain, amid other very curious and useful information, details of the disastrous effects of the inattention paid to the fitting out of the Lake-squadron, under Captain Barclay, which has already been often before the public eye, but is here made very apparent. It offers a deplorable picture of the imbecility, to use the least harsh expression, with which this part of the campaign was carried on, and by which some of the bravest of our naval officers were sacrificed. General Proctor's defeat at the Moravian town, and the perhaps unmerited censure passed on his division by the Commander-in-Chief at Quebec, meet with proper notice; and the death of *Tecumseh*, the first of the Indian chiefs, is described, as well as his singular character, with a skilful hand. In p. 295. is a horrid confirmation of what we before asserted concerning the barbarities committed by the American troops and Indians on the

the dead, after a battle. The unnecessary severity practised on some British officers, who were made captives at the above affair, is reprobated by Mr. James in a laudable manner. Indeed, it can be very little to the credit of the persons implicated in this censure that they placed those brave men in a public prison, among the vilest and most abandoned felons that ever disgraced society; men condemned for murder, house-breaking, rapes, and horse-stealing.

The battles of Chateaugay, Chrystler's Farm, and other affairs connected with these actions, conclude the first volume; which we have perused with attention, and quit with a greater share of reluctance than we anticipated on taking it up. We are particularly pleased with this remark concerning the battle of Chrystler's Farm: — 'The American troops, besides their want of discipline and inexperience, had difficulties to contend with, none of which are mentioned in the American account of the battle. They had been under arms all the previous night, during an incessant rain; and had to march to the attack over ploughed ground, almost knee-deep in mud. This was certainly discouraging,' &c. A few more such passages as these, instead of the ironical answers to American official or unofficial statements, would not only have made Mr. James's book much more valuable as an authority, but would have tended to give the descendants of our forefathers in America a higher idea of the dignity with which a British annalist usually composes his narrations.

The copious appendix to this volume contains nearly all the official details of the events described in its pages, both American and British.

Volume II. furnishes so much interesting matter, that our limits will not be sufficiently extensive to enable us to give detailed accounts of each of its chapters. We shall therefore only touch on the principal subjects as they occur: but we must not omit to observe that, throughout this performance, too little is said concerning the Canadian militia; for, excepting the short paragraphs, slightly mentioning their good behaviour in pages 155. and 312., in the first volume, we find them seldom noticed, unless as forming component parts of the British armies or detachments. Yet every person, who is acquainted with the events of the frontier-war, knows that, had it not been for the exertions of this gallant and deserving class of men, composed principally of the descendants of French settlers, the flag of the United States would have been seen waving at the very gates of Quebec, long before the arrival of the British reinforcements from the shores of the Garonne. It is a singular coincidence that the children
of

Of Frenchmen saved our colony, in the first instance; and that our own countrymen from the shores of France finally protected it from American rapacity.

A Canadian winter, and the merciless conflagration of the town of Newark, (which had been for six months possessed by the United States' troops,) during such a season, and at a time when the inhabitants were mostly asleep and consequently unoffending, are ably described in the commencement of the volume. It was not, however, we are glad to learn, the responsible act of the American commander, but an order from the *Secretary of State* which caused this crime to be committed. The burning of Washington was nothing compared to such an infamous affair. In the latter place, which had opposed force to force, only the uninhabited capitol and navy-yard were purposely set in flames; in the former, unresisting and defenceless, 149 houses, being all but one of which the town consisted, were consumed to the ground, and the affrighted inhabitants torn naked from their beds, to wander and perish amid the trackless snows. The picture of 400 helpless women and children, thus driven to the extreme of misery, on the 10th of December, in a degree of cold equalling that of the Polar circle, is too dreadful to contemplate. We pass to the more agreeable notice of the author that, in the subsequent offensive measures in return, none of the American villages were destroyed, unless the inhabitants resisted, or had deserted their places of abode before the British troops appeared.

The fall of Fort Niagara, and the retaliatory expedition, conclude the events in Canada described in the first section. A different field, of equal importance, is then occupied by the pages of this work; viz. the operations on the Atlantic shores of the United States, undertaken in order to divert the attention of the American government from the Canadian war: but the occurrences in the Chesapeake are not of sufficient moment to merit any particular attention.

To use Mr. James's own words, 'from the languid climate of the Chesapeake, we are again suddenly called to the bracing regions of the Canadas, against whose towns and inhabitants the United States' troops were still marching, with augmented numbers and renovated hopes,' and thus opened the campaign of the year 1814 on the Canadian frontier. Here the war, in the beginning of that year, was chiefly confined to the neighbourhood of Lake Champlain; from whose banks the American army under General Wilkinson, consisting of 4000 men, attacked the British force stationed in the Stone-mill at La Colle, on the river Richelieu, amount-

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ing to 430 regulars and militia troops, only 180 of whom were in the mill, and the remainder in a house surrounded with logs. These edifices were battered by a $5\frac{1}{2}$ inch howitzer, a 12 and a 6 pounder; and, though the little garrison had only musketry to oppose to this formidable assailing force, it completely disconcerted all their measures, and obliged them to make a precipitate retreat. Perhaps no action, in the whole course of this war, reflects greater honour on the Canadian arms than this defence of the position at La Colle, although it has not been honoured by medals or clasps: but Major Handcock, who was the commandant of the valiant garrison, is now a lieutenant-colonel.

The battle of Lundy's Lane, and the fifth invasion of Canada, are faithfully and well described; as is the unsuccessful attack by the British on Fort Erie, in the fifteenth chapter. From the unprepared state of the attacking columns, a total discomfiture took place; one regiment had no flints to their muskets, and others were not furnished with proper scaling ladders; yet a brave detachment scaled the works, and, though long exposed to the whole fire of the garrison, retreated only when the bastion on which they stood blew up, and when they had lost nearly all their officers, including the gallant Colonel Drummond of the 104th. We are inclined to allow more credit to the American garrison on this occasion than Mr. James has granted; they certainly behaved with a fortitude becoming veterans, and not to be expected from levies of militia.

After this spirited conduct of our troops on Lake Huron, comes a picture which is enveloped in so sombre a shade, that we should be glad if it had never met our eye. It is the description of Sir George Prevost's attack on Plattsburg. Mr. James gives an able exposition of this unfortunate campaign; in which some of Wellington's best troops, some of the veterans of the Iberian war, were compelled to retreat when the laurels were within their grasp; and a portion of our gallant naval countrymen courted honour in the depths of an American Lake, dying on its bosom in an attack on a squadron triple the force of that in which they sailed. We shall, however, draw a veil over this scene; advising those of our countrymen who wish for information to look into the pages of the volume before us, where they will find it creditably and amply given: but the following short paragraph so well agrees with the fact as it is known to every officer who served in that army, that we cannot refrain from transcribing it:—'The American commander Macomb, notwithstanding all his puffs about our defeat, was actually sitting

in gloomy despair, upon a gun, whilst our troops were advancing on the 11th, and was ready to surrender, the moment that the first British soldier appeared upon the parapet. And when he was *notified*, that they had suddenly halted, and were then on the retreat, he started up, almost frantic with joy, and could hardly believe the evidence of his senses.' A defence has been set up for this deplorable affair, on the plea that the commander was restricted by orders from home, peremptorily directing him not to undertake an attack without the co-operation of the fleet: but this argument falls to the ground at once, as *the fleet did co-operate*, and was not seconded by the land-force.*

Sir John Sherbrooke's well conceived invasion of the district or province of Maine is fully described in the 17th chapter. By this operation, managed with address, an immense tract of country fell under the power of England, with very little loss to our troops. Mr. James might have added to his stock of information on this subject, that so excellently were the dispositions of Sir John Sherbrooke carried into effect, for the defence of the position which he had occupied at Castine, that the American news-papers and publications, of that period, openly declared that the disposable force of the State of Massachusetts could not have ejected the troops from their fortifications on the peninsula, which was compared to a second Gibraltar.

In the sixth chapter, the battle of Bladensburg, the capture of Washington, and the re-embarkation of the army, are developed at length. Of the burning of the capitol and navy-yard we have already spoken; and, without having altered our notions on that head, we shall merely say that it might be wished that the capitol and the President's house had been spared, and the navy-yard, forts, or military buildings alone destroyed: but it was the circumstance of some soldiers, and General Ross's horse, being killed and wounded by a volley from the windows of the capitol, which caused its destruction; the President's house was also occupied as a garrison, and thus unfortunately shared the fate of its splendid neighbour. Amid all the declamation poured forth against the commanders on this occasion, in the American publications, no one has ventured to assert that private property was not uniformly protected: on the contrary, to use the language of one author†, it is acknowledged that "the

* See the note at p. 169. of this article.

† Thomson's Sketches of the War, p. 336. Philadelphia, 1816.
plunder

plunder of individual property was prohibited, and soldiers transgressing the order were severely punished."

Baltimore is described in the next section; as well as the attack on and retreat from that place, with the death of the lamented General Ross. This officer may be justly styled the "second Wolfe;" for, notwithstanding the censure passed on him for burning the capitol, it is agreed that his march of five days through the heart of the enemy's country, his victory at Bladensburg, his capture of the metropolis, and lastly his conduct before Baltimore, are justly to be placed amid the long catalogue of glorious achievements which fill the pages of our history. He had first signalized himself in *Holland*, in the famous defence of the lines of Sir Ralph Abercromby, where he was severely wounded: in the battle of *Maida*, he shone conspicuously: he obtained no common distinction in the hard-fought action of *Corunna*: at *Vittoria*, he behaved so gallantly that Lord Wellington gave him a brigade; and in the *Pyrenees* his division was said by the commander to have been distinguished beyond all precedent; the General having charged the French four times, and had three horses killed under him. At the battle of the *Nive*, and at *Orthes*, he followed up the same career; and at the early age of 40 he fell by an American rifleman's fatal ball.

The concluding chapter is devoted to the explanation of the expedition to New Orleans, the capture of Fort Bowyer, and other events near the shores of the great Mississippi; with comments on the treaty of peace between Great Britain and the United States of America. In this portion of his work, Mr. James has inserted an article which we believe is not entirely correct; viz. the paragraph stating that the government of the United States passed a secret act in congress, in the early part of the year 1813, authorizing the President to occupy that part of Spanish West Florida which is situated between the Perdido river and the Mississippi. The treaty of 1783 fixed the boundaries of Spanish Florida at the confluence of the Perdido or Host-river with the Gulf of Mexico; and all the country west of that river was to be thenceforth considered as an integral part of the Mississippi territory. The Americans, however, neglected to occupy it, till they found that the British had determined on restoring it, with Louisiana, to Spain. It is, therefore, clear that there was no necessity for the congress to pass a secret act to take possession of a territory, which was already acknowledged by Spain and England as forming a part of the United States. The secret act which received the

the sanction of that congress was of a different nature, and is conjectured to have been caused by a tacit consent, on the part of Spain, that the President should take military possession of *all Florida*, whenever circumstances might render such a measure necessary. A strong proof of this consent is given by Mr. James, who declares, in page 389., 2d volume, that 'the *Mexican Field-marshal Don Juan de Anaya* fought against us at New Orleans.' Spanish gratitude, next to Spanish bigotry, is likely to become a proverb to our posterity. Will it be credited, when future historians shall relate it, that, after England had lavished her blood and her treasure to support that people against the most dreadful and powerful usurper who had ever occupied their fertile kingdom since the times of the Moorish invaders, this same people could treacherously combine with an enemy to oppose their benefactors, with all the united force of perfidy and of open strength, when engaged in a farther act of restoring their degraded honour?

This last chapter we are disposed to regard as the best in the whole work: it gives a clearer account of its subjects, is less virulent in repelling false statements, and courteously grants to the American General those good qualities which are justly ascribable to him. The following passage is truly pleasing, after a perusal of two thick octavos, of which the pages are too often filled with very different matter:—General Jackson 'proved himself at New Orleans not only an able general, for the description of country in which he had to operate, but, in all his transactions with the British officers, both an honourable and a courteous enemy. In his official despatches, too, he has left an example of modesty worthy of imitation by the generality of American commanders, naval as well as military.'

An extended appendix, as in the first volume, terminates the second, and contains numerous public documents highly important in themselves, as well as useful to the reader in following up the history. It now only remains for us to notice the other illustrations, which consist of the following maps, charts, and plans:—1st, A map of the Straits of Niagara, which is acceptable in a geological as well as in a military point of view, being accompanied by a section of the straits, on a small scale: but we wish that this section had been made larger, and more detailed. Three distinct subjects occupy the 2d plate; one of which is a survey or chart of a part of Lake Ontario and the river St. Lawrence, by Captain Owen, R. N., on a large scale, and extremely well executed: the others are military sketches, on a very re-

duced scale, of Sackett's Harbour and Kingston. Nos. V. and VI., also on one sheet, are sketches of the march of General Ross from Benedict on the Patuxent to Washington, and of the affair at Bladenburgh; neither of which seems to have been the work of a military draughtsman. The last, a plan of 'the operations of the British and American forces on the 8th of January 1815, below New Orleans,' is so unlike any thing to which we are accustomed on similar subjects, that we can by no means coincide with the author when, in his preface, he seems to regard it as the best in the work. He acknowledges that he 'framed it out of two engravings in two distinct American publications;' and it has, indeed, the air of having been 'framed,' and entirely by the parallel ruler: for it looks as square and formal as some of the wood-cuts in our early works on fortification and tactics.

A very comprehensive and apparently correct index is properly subjoined to this performance.

AET. VI. *Rhododaphne*: or the Thessalian Spell. A Poem. Crown 8vo. pp. 181. 7s. Boards. Hookham. 1818.

THIS is a very elegant little work. It is a Grecian fairy-tale, which required considerable knowledge of *erotic antiquity* in the author, and no ordinary command of the lighter graces of versification.

All the charm of the story would be destroyed by any thing like an abstract of its brief but ingenious contents; and for the same reason, viz. the fear of diminishing the pleasure of the reader and the just attractiveness of the poet, we shall abstain from any quotation which would reveal the main incidents of *Rhododaphne*. The book, indeed, short as it is, abounds in passages which, from the general nature of their subjects, may be more fairly and properly extracted than any of the component parts of the tale itself. Our readers will easily form their judgment of the merits of this writer, who reminds us of the anonymous author of the "Bridal of Triermain,"* from the subjoined specimens.

The scene is Greece.

'Eve came, and twilight's balmy hour:
Alone, beneath the cedar bower,

* This work, our readers well know, was published anonymously: but, very recently, we have seen it, and "Harold the Dauntless," advertized as the now acknowledged compositions of the renowned Walter Scott, Esq.

The

The lovers sate, in converse dear
 Retracing many a backward year,
 Their infant sports in field and grove,
 Their mutual tasks, their dawning love,
 Their mingled tears of past distress,
 Now all absorbed in happiness;
 And oft would Fancy intervene,
 To throw, on many a pictured scene
 Of life's untrodden path, such gleams
 Of golden light, such blissful dreams,
 As in young Love's enraptured eye
 Hope almost made reality.

' So in that dear accustomed shade,
 With Ladon flowing at their feet,
 Together sate the youth and maid,
 In that uncertain shadowy light.
 When day and darkness mingling meet,
 Her bright eyes ne'er had seemed so bright,
 Her sweet voice ne'er had seemed so sweet,
 As then they seemed. Upon his neck
 Her head was resting, and her eyes
 Were raised to his, for no disguise
 Her feelings knew; untaught to check,
 As in these days more worldly wise,
 The heart's best purest sympathies.'

After this Arcadian sketch of love and romance, let us next
 behold a more varied picture.

—— ' 'Tis she,
 The magic maid of Thessaly,
 'Tis Rhododaphne! By the spell,
 That ever round him dwelt, opprest,
 He bowed his head upon his breast,
 And o'er his eyes his hand he drew,
 That fatal beauty's sight to shun.
 Now from the orient heaven the sun
 Had clothed the eastward waves with fire:
 Right from the west the fair breeze blew:
 The full sails swelled, and sparkling through
 The sounding sea the vessel flew:
 With wine and copious cheer the crew
 Caroused: the damsel o'er the lyre
 Her rapid fingers lightly flung,
 And thus, with feigned obedience, sung:—
 " The Nereid's home is calm and bright,
 The ocean-depths below,
 Where liquid streams of emerald light
 Through caves of coral flow.
 She has a lyre of silver strings
 Framed on a pearly shell,

And sweetly to that lyre she sings
 The shipwrecked seaman's knell.
 ' " The ocean-snake in sleep she binds ;
 The dolphins round her play :
 His purple conch the Triton winds
 Responsive to the lay :
 Proteus and Phorcys, sea-gods old,
 Watch by her coral cell,
 To hear, on watery echoes rolled,
 The shipwrecked seaman's knell." ' —

— — — — —
 ' She rose, and loosed her radiant hair,
 And raised her golden lyre in air.
 The lyre, beneath the breeze's wings,
 As if a spirit swept the strings,
 Breathed airy music, sweet and strange,
 In many a wild phantastic change.
 Most like a daughter of the Sun
 She stood : her eyes all radiant shone
 With beams unutterably bright ;
 And her long tresses, loose and light,
 As on the playful breeze they rolled,
 Flamed with rays of burning gold.'

We are, however, scarcely fulfilling our promise of selecting common-places from this small but well-stocked poetical store-house.

' Hast thou, in some safe retreat,
 Waked and watched, to hear the roar
 Of breakers on the wind-swept shore?
 Go forth at morn. The waves, that beat
 Still rough and white when blasts are o'er,
 May wash, all ghastly, to thy feet
 Some victim of the midnight storm.
 From that drenched garb and pallid form
 Shrink not : but fix thy gaze, and see
 Thy own congenial destiny.
 For him, perhaps, an anxious wife
 On some far coast o'erlooks the wave :
 A child, unknowing of the strife
 Of elements, to whom he gave
 His last fond kiss, is at her breast :
 The skies are clear, the seas at rest
 Before her, and the hour is nigh
 Of his return ; but black the sky
 To him, and fierce the hostile main,
 Have been. He will not come again.
 But yesterday, and life, and health,
 And hope, and love, and power, and wealth,

Were

Were his: to-day, in one brief hour, .
Of all his wealth, of all his power,
He saved not, on his shattered deck,
A plank, to waft him from the wreck.
Now turn away, and dry thy tears,
And build long schemes for distant years!
Wreck is not only on the sea.
The warrior dies in victory:
The ruin of his natal roof
O'erwhelms the sleeping man: the hoof
Of his prized steed has struck with fate
The horseman in his own home gate:
The feast and mantling bowl destroy
The sensual in the hour of joy.
The bride from her paternal porch
Comes forth among her maids: the torch,
That led at morn the nuptial choir,
Kindles at night her funeral pyre.
Now turn away, indulge thy dreams,
And build for distant years thy schemes!

The thoughts in the ensuing passage are perhaps sufficiently usual, when such matters are recalled, for the thousandth time, by any amatory poet: but we can fix no limit to their power of pleasing:

“ We grew together, like twin flowers,
Whose opening buds the same dews cherish;
And one is left, ere noon-tide hours,
Violently; one remains, to perish
By slow decay; as I remain
Even now, to move and breathe in vain.
The late, false love, that worldlings learn,
When hearts are hard, and thoughts are stern,
And feelings dull, and custom's rule
Omnipotent, that love may cool,
And waste, and change: but this — which flings
Round the young soul its tendril rings,
Strengthening their growth and grasp with years,
Till habits, pleasures, hopes, smiles, tears,
All modes of thinking, feeling, seeing,
Of two congenial spirits, blend
In one inseparable being, —
Deem'st thou this love can change or end?
There is no eddy on the stream,
No bough that light winds bend and toss,
No chequering of the sunny beam
Upon the woodland moss,
No star in evening's sky, no flower
Whose beauty odorous breezes stir,
No sweet bird singing in the bower,

Nay, not the rustling of a leaf,
That does not nurse and feed my grief
By wakening thoughts of her.”

It would be unpardonable, in noticing an author who is to be classed among the most decided votaries of the classical Cupid,

“ *Et quantum est hominum venustiorum,*”

that this inflammatory æra has produced, to omit his ardent address to his presiding deity :

‘ First, fairest, best, of powers supernal,
Love waved in heaven his wings of gold,
And from the depths of Night eternal,
Black Erebus, and Chaos old,
Bade light, and life, and beauty rise
Harmonious from the dark disguise
Of elemental discord wild,
Which he had charmed and reconciled.
Love first in social bonds combined
The scattered tribes of humankind,
And bade the wild race cease to roam,
And learn the endearing name of home.
From Love the sister arts began,
That charm, adorn, and soften man.
To Love the feast, the dance, belong,
The temple-rite, the choral song ;
All feelings that refine and bless,
All kindness, sweetness, gentleness.
Him men adore, and gods admire,
Of delicacy, grace, desire,
Persuasion, bliss, the bounteous sire ;
In hopes, and toils, and pains, and fears,
Sole dryer of our human tears ;
Chief ornament of heaven, and king
Of earth, to whom the world doth sing
One chorus of accordant pleasure,
Of which he taught and leads the measure.
He kindles in the inmost mind
One lonely flame — for once — for one —
A vestal fire, which, there enshrined,
Lives on, till life itself be done.
All other fires are of the earth,
And transient : but of heavenly birth
Is Love’s first flame, which howsoever
Fraud, power, woe, chance, or fate, may sever
From its congenial source, must burn
Unquenched, but in the funeral urn.’

ART. VII. *Dramatic Tales*; by the Author of "The Poetic Mirror." 12mo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co.

"THE Poetic Mirror," as we felt pleasure in describing it*, is certainly one of the happiest *jeux d'esprit* of the age in which we live. "The Rejected Addresses"† claimed, indeed, and acquired more popularity by the very occasion which called them forth: but, considered less as a temporary than as a permanent exposure of the faulty manner of several popular writers, the former deserves to be ranked with the "Probationary Odes" and the "Anti-Jacobin Poetry" of preceding periods.

We regret to say that the serious productions or rather the original compositions of this anonymous author do not correspond in merit to his successful parodies. Certainly, however, he writes better as an imitator than as an inventor, and so far he has disappointed us: for we will own that the very great raciness and vigour of his imitations had convinced us that he *could*, if he *would*, display talents very superior to many of those poets whom he had so fortunately represented; and some passages, especially in his imitation of Mr. Wordsworth, were much above their originals. Alas! he has dropped, suddenly, and we fear for ever, from the height which he had ascended; and he has here presented us with a poor school-boy's performance, — a coarse and unenlightened *commixture* of Allan Ramsay, Robert Burns, and Walter Scott, into an irregular fairy tale, dramatized and *colloquized* for the occasion.

We have not much of either time or room to bestow on such a composition. The language of these Dramatic Tales is, as usual, a compound of the style of all writers and all ages: the theatrical tone of Shakspeare is jumbled into the same verse with the skipping familiarity of the modern-antique ballad; and the witchcraft of James the First is associated with the Bond-street lounge of George the Third. 'All-hallow Eve,' the first of these tales, is one of the best, and we extract from it the following detached passage; — a sort of effort in which these volumes are often successful, in spite of their want of plan, character, incident, and every weightier merit.

' SCENE II. *The Witches' Cot.*

' *Discovers* GRIMALD, NORA, and GELON, standing by a Fire, at which is placed a Waxen Image.

' *Gel.* Are these unearthly orgies done?

' *Grim.* Scarce begun! — Scarce begun! —

* See Rev. Vol. lxxxiv. N.S. p. 356. † See Vol. lxi. N.S. p. 288.
N 4 Come,

Come, sing one other strain with me,
To charm the spirit of destiny.

(They sing slowly and wild.)

*Where art thou? Where art thou?
Busy Spirit, where art thou
Weaving the fates of mortals now?
Where art thou? &c.*

'Grim. (Speaks.) Where art thou? Where art thou?

*Busy Spirit, where art thou
Weaving the fates of mortals now?
Art thou beneath the ocean wave,
Scraping the sea-weeds from the grave
Where the merry sailor must shortly lie?
Or art thou gone to bustle and ply
Where flaring standards flap the sky,
Working thy baleful web of woe,
Or binding wreaths for the hero's brow?
Or art thou gone to heaven above,
Away to the waning star of love,
To skim the dew-web from the tree,
Of which the golden skene shall be
That guides the lover's destiny?
Or watchest thou the stripling's bed,
Or the couch where maiden beauty is laid,
With dreams their feelings to suborn,
And sprinkle from thy living urn
The kindred spark that long shall burn?
Spirit! wherever thou may'st be,
Or gone to the caves beneath the sea,
Or flown the wild sea-rock to haunt
And scare the drowsy cormorant;
Whether thou rangest vale or steep,
Or watchest mellow beauty's sleep,
The monarch's throne, or the field of death,
The world above, or the world beneath,
We ask thy welcome presence here,
Come — Come — Appear — Appear.* *(Pause.)*

*'I see thee not — I cannot see
The slightest shade or drapery
Of fate's own herald, known to me.
O come like a feeling, or come like a sound,
Or come like an odour along the ground;
Come like a film of floating-blue,
Or come like the moss-crop's slightest flue,
Or glimmering rack of the midnight dew.
We wait thee, motionless and dumb —
Come, O gentle Spirit! come.* *(Pause.)'*

Some parts in this incantation, and the general air of it,
remind us of Manfred, Lord Byron's magical drama.

The concluding direction to the actor, or the reader, in 'Sir Anthony Moore,' the second of the dramas, is German enough. 'He strides off deeply affected — *They all embrace* — Curtain drops.' — This, we think, must have satisfied Madame de Staël herself, in her admiration of the *Théâtre d'Allemagne*.

'The Profligate Princes,' with which the second volume opens, is a piece exactly resembling the rest; undeserving of criticism in its design or execution, *as a whole*, but abounding in clever parts and passages. For instance:

'Come near, I'll tell a simple tale to thee:
Once on a lovely day — it was in spring,
I rested on the height of that dread cliff
That overlooks old Stirling. All was gay;
The birds sung sweet; the trees put forth their leaves,
So pale, that in the sun they look'd like blossoms:
The wild thyme and the violet deck'd the sward
On which I lay, scenting the air with sweets.
Some children wander'd careless on the hill,
Selecting early flowers. My heart rejoiced,
For all was glad around me. One sweet maid
Came tripping near, eyeing, with gladsome smile,
Each little flower that bloom'd upon the hill;
Nimble she pick'd them, minding me of swan
That feeds upon the waste. I blest the girl!
She was not maid, nor child; but of that age
'Twixt both, when woman nears unto the list
Where angels stand smiling on thing so sweet.
Deep in a little den, within the cliff,
A floweret caught her eye — it was a primrose
Fair flaunting in the sun. With eager haste,
Heedless of risk, she clamber'd down the steep,
Pluck'd the wish'd flower — and sigh'd; for when she saw
The depth she had descended, then she woke
To sense of danger. All her flowers she dropt,
And tried to gain the height; but tried in vain!
I hastened to her rescue; but, alas!
I came too late!

'The Haunted Glen' is announced as an *unfinished* performance. The others indeed are highly *finished*! We turn, however, from an unpleasant subject of contemplation: namely, that want of due poetical dignity, which alone could permit a writer of very considerable powers to publish his childish attempts at dramatic dialogue and narration; and to obscure the well-earned credit, and damp the well-founded expectations, which his first happy composition had very generally excited.

ART. VIII. *Observations on the deranged Manifestations of the Mind, or Insanity.* By J. G. Spurzheim, M.D., &c. With Four Copper-plates. Royal 8vo. 14s. Boards. Baldwin and Co.

THE name of Dr. Spurzheim must be familiar to all our readers, on account of the noted hypothesis which he supported, in conjunction with his late colleague Dr. Gall; the object of which was to prove that the mental faculties of individuals were intimately connected with the physical structure and organization of the brain; and that the various sensitive and intellectual powers have their seat in different and appropriate parts of this organ. In the volume now before us, he seems to have been desirous of applying his knowledge to practice; and he proceeds on the principle that, as he credited himself for having made some discoveries in the physiology of the nervous system, so it must necessarily follow that an equal or corresponding insight would be obtained into its pathology.

He repeatedly enforces the position that all preceding writers were very imperfectly acquainted with the nature and the treatment of insanity; and this deficiency he principally ascribes to their ignorance of metaphysics, and of the healthy condition of the mental powers. On this subject, two circumstances will particularly fall under examination: first, the more general question whether a knowledge of metaphysics be likely to throw any light on our medical practice; and, secondly, whether Dr. Spurzheim be the individual destined to afford us this light. That a thorough acquaintance with every department of knowledge makes us more capable of comprehending each particular branch is an obvious truth, and on this principle Dr. Spurzheim's position may be admitted: but we doubt much whether it can be maintained beyond this point. In certain diseases of the eye, the phenomena can be explained only by some knowledge of optics: but it would be absurd to say that a thorough acquaintance with this science is essential to our comprehension of the diseases of that organ. Whatever be the correct theory of the nervous system, whether the material or the immaterial hypothesis be deemed the most probable, the duty of the pathologist is to observe accurately the symptoms, to endeavour to point out the effects of certain remedies, and, if possible, to trace a connection between the symptoms and the appearances after death, when we have an opportunity of becoming acquainted with them. This, we apprehend, includes the whole of the duty of the practitioner; and, were he to attain a thorough acquaintance with these topics, he would have perfected his art: but this, strictly speaking,

speaking, comprehends the *physics*, not the *metaphysics*, of insanity.

From these observations, it will appear that we feel ourselves compelled to differ from the present author with respect to his first or more general position, viz. the practical importance of metaphysical knowledge. We must now take a review of his work; and, waiving this point, or conceding it to him, we must examine how he has employed his supposed knowledge, or what are the precise advantages which he conceives that he has gained by it. His first step does not appear to argue much in favour of his metaphysical acumen: we mean the manner in which he arranges his subject. The title of the work, as may be seen above, is 'on the deranged Manifestations of the Mind, or Insanity;' making these terms synonymous with each other. The functions of the mind are divided into two classes, external and internal; and under the former are included voluntary motion and the five senses: thus confounding the nervous system, or its specific power, sensibility, with the effects of this power; and the operation of the external senses with the faculty of perception, which conveys their agencies to the understanding. Dr. S. has indeed completely misunderstood or disregarded the distinction between the nervous and the sensorial affections, and has applied the term *mind* to both of them alike. Who would suspect that the following paragraph, with which the work commences, had any relation to the mental functions? yet from its title, 'Derangements of the external Functions of the Mind,' we find that this was intended to be the case by the author.

'The derangements of these functions, as to their definition, are easily understood. Wherever voluntary motion, or the functions of the five senses, deviate from their healthy state; if, for instance, the will has no influence on the muscles, or if the sensations of the five senses be too acute, too weak, or irregular, they are said to be diseased, just as any other part of the body. These diseases are commonly treated in pathology under the class of neuroses, and are arranged together with the nervous affections of the thorax and abdomen, such as tussis convulsiva, asthma, dyspnœa, cardialgia, colica, &c.'

Dr. S. does not manifest more accuracy, either of language or of idea, respecting 'the internal Functions of the Mind;' for here we observe the same mistake and the same confusion of the nervous and the sensorial affections;

'It is known that the internal operations of the mind are often deranged in general diseases, such as in fevers, inflammations, gout, &c.; and every one admits that delirium, stupor, vertigo, lethargic

lethargic affections, even apoplexy, depend on the cerebral organization. But, by our ignorance with respect to the functions of the brain, far the greater number of the deranged manifestations of the mind have not yet been generally considered as disorders of the cerebral organization. I think, however, that, as in the disorders of any other organic part we always consider at the same time its deranged functions, and in observing the deranged functions we think of its disturbed organization, our proceeding in regard to the brain ought to be the same. Those who speak of diseases of the mind alone may speak with the same reason of diseases of the mere vital principle in liver-complaints, or in disturbed digestion, or in its idiosyncrasies. Such physicians may confine their plan of cure to a moral treatment of the *archeus*, in cases where a person cannot digest mutton or cauliflower.

On this paragraph, we may remark that the author has assumed the very point which he ought to have proved, and has indulged in a jest which only betrays his ignorance of the subject.

We will, however, quit Dr. Spurzheim's metaphysics, of which the specimen now before us has not tended to raise our opinion, and proceed to examine what he says on the proper subject of his work. We begin with his definition.

'Insanity is an aberration of any sensation or intellectual power from the healthy state, without being able to distinguish the diseased state; and the aberration of any feeling from the state of health, without being able to distinguish it, or without the influence of the will on the actions of the feeling. In other words, the incapacity of distinguishing the diseased functions of the mind, and the irresistibility of our actions, constitute insanity.'

The first of these two definitions appears to us to be incorrect, and the second unintelligible. The power of distinguishing our sensations requires a sound state of the body as well as of the mind, and the loss of this power is as characteristic of delirium as of insanity. The same objection applies to the second form of the definition; in which 'the incapacity of distinguishing the diseased functions of the mind and the irresistibility of our actions,' not to dwell on the equivocal meaning of the latter clause, may apply to a state of delirium, or even to idiocy, equally with insanity. Still, however, though we could not but consider that the author has, as it were, a second time stumbled on the threshold, and has failed in establishing his general conception of mental diseases and his specific notion of insanity, we reflected that he might have obtained some valuable information concerning it, have attentively observed its phenomena, and have gained some useful knowledge respecting its management. In order

to ascertain how far this was the case, we proceeded, and diligently perused the section intitled *Symptoms*: but we did not find much to commend in it; we perceived no marks of original observation, nothing characteristic or discriminative, but a series of statements that have no particular merit either in the expression or the arrangement. The author, indeed, does not seem to aim at any originality in this part of his work; his remarks being altogether vague and commonplace, or, when not of this character, professedly borrowed from other sources.

The most important parts of the subject in their real nature, and those to which Dr. S. has apparently devoted the greatest share of attention, are the sections on the causes and the treatment of insanity. The former of these is the point on which he builds the foundation of his system; and (we presume) rests his peculiar merits; and from which he expects to derive the specific benefit of that system. He brings forwards, as the leading feature of his pathology, the position that the proximate cause of insanity is corporeal, and that it resides in the brain; or, in other words, that, whenever the mental faculties are affected, a corresponding alteration occurs in the visible structure of the brain. This is the only rational view that we can take of the nature of the controversy which has so long subsisted on this point; for as to any theoretical speculations on the nature of the connection between the brain and its functions, or any analogies between the operations of the cerebral organs and the other parts of the body, they can never be regarded as conclusive. With reference to this great question, we shall quote the author's own words. In order to shew that 'the proximate cause of insanity is in the brain,' he lays down the position that 'the brain is the organ of the mind, and the cerebral parts the organs of its primitive faculties:' which position he thus endeavours to prove:

'With respect to these points, I refer the reader to the details mentioned in my work on Physiognomy for and against them. If it be proved that the brain is the organ of the mind, and that the manifestations of every primitive faculty of the mind depend on a peculiar part of the brain; and if all primitive powers of the mind and their respective organs be once ascertained, it is evident that the cause of insanity will be looked for in the brain, and the cause of the deranged manifestations of every special faculty in a peculiar part of the brain. I do not say that I am advanced in this knowledge as far as I wish; much more than what is already known must be found out; but from daily observations, and the most positive facts, I am convinced that the basis of the above-mentioned doctrine is founded on nature.

nature. Thus, instead of ascribing insanity, or the disturbed reflecting powers and feelings, to what is called moral causes, the deranged manifestations of these faculties will always be considered as morbid affections of the cerebral organization.'

We fear that most of our readers will consider this appeal to authority as rather unsatisfactory, and will regard the reference to the ponderous volume on *Physiognomy* as not a very summary method of dispatching the argument. — The next section is intitled, 'Morbid Phænomena of the Brain in Insanity:' but this subject is treated almost in as concise a manner as the former; and we are again told that on this point the author has given many details in his work on *Physiognomy*. He is aware that 'anatomists and surgeons of celebrity relate that they could not find any morbid appearance in the examination of insane persons after death:' but to this observation he seems to conceive the following to be a sufficient answer:

'I reply that various obvious differences, as to size and form of the brains of different sexes or individuals, have also been overlooked, while they may be easily observed. I really think that all morbid effects which are observed in other parts may also be distinguished in the brain, such as a too defective or too large development of its substance, distension of blood-vessels, inflammation, suppuration, serous effusion, dropsy, rupture, or ossification of blood-vessels. I even maintain that morbid changes of the physical appearances of colour and texture might be pointed out in the brains of many who have died insane, if those who examine them were better acquainted with the appearances of the brains of individuals who had no particular determination of blood to the head, and preserved their manifestations of the mind to the last moment of life. In fever with delirium, in phrenitis, in insanity with too powerful manifestations of the faculties, in children who from birth were able to manifest their powers of the mind, but lost them by accidental disease, and in those who after violent mania became fatuous, or who died apoplectic, I was always able to detect some morbid appearances or organic alterations, either in the substance of the brain, or in the blood-vessels, or membranes, or even in the skull, which sometimes is uncommonly thick, or dense like ivory.'

In the last sentence of this quotation, we have something approaching to a ground for belief: but probably all our readers will agree with us in the opinion that the general texture of the argument is flimsy in the extreme.

We shall now offer a few remarks on the last section, which gives an account of the treatment of insanity. Having divided the treatment into two parts, under the denominations of moral and medical, (the former of which, according to the accustomed

accustomed inaccuracy or vagueness of the author's language, is made to comprehend every thing which is not medical, or rather strictly pharmaceutical,) the following subjects are successively considered under the denomination of moral treatment: viz. architectural requisites of a hospital for curable insane; departments for convalescents; reception of patients; cleanliness, air, and light; temperature; diet; coercion; treatment of the feelings; treatment of the intellectual faculties; occupations of the insane; inspection and visitation. We will not dwell on the impropriety of classing some of these among the objects of moral treatment, although they have certainly little claim to be regarded in this point of view: but we shall rather consider what is said concerning them. After an attentive examination of this part of Dr. Spurzheim's work, we feel ourselves justified in pronouncing it to be uninteresting and uninformative; and, in short, to exhibit precisely the same character with the former part. We rise from the perusal of it without gaining a single new idea, without settling any disputed point, without elucidating any difficulty. The subsequent paragraphs we quote as affording specimens of the whole, and exemplifying the common-place tenor of its style and sentiments. On the subject of coercion, the author remarks:

' There was a time when it was a general opinion, and there are still persons and practitioners so ignorant as to fancy, that the insane ought to fear, and that stripes and blows are the best means of effectuating a permanent impression. Corporeal punishment was, and sometimes still is, recommended even by medical authority, with a view of rendering insane people rational by impressing terror. This is, however, not only cruel and against Christian charity, in cases where the patients are partially deprived of understanding, but it is even absurd. Indeed, experience has shown the greater efficacy of milder methods of treatment. The most tender method generally produces the best effect; and in coercion the mildest possible means ought to be adopted. No corporeal punishment, as stripes and blows, no resentment, no return of injury, is to be allowed; and unnecessary severity ought to be punished as criminal. No deception ought to be permitted; but a confidential behaviour and firm authority are to be observed.'

Respecting the Treatment of the Feelings, Dr. Spurzheim thus writes:

' Insanity particularly concerns the deranged feelings; and, as their functions appear often disordered in the state of health, it has been said that the whole world is a madhouse. It is real madness as soon as the will has lost its influence on the actions of the feelings;

feelings; besides, we find in insane people the activity of all the primitive powers of the mind, and their manifestations modified in every individual, as is the case in the rest of mankind. There are good and ill-tempered insane; some are bashful; others do not know what is due to decency: some are morose and quarrelsome; others, gay and cheerful: some, being with other patients, continually create insurrections, and persuade the patients to commit acts of mischief; others are peaceable and obedient: we meet among them with noisy and quiet, cunning, stubborn, though tender in their appearance; distrustful, jealous, envious, vindictive, irascible, or forbearing; open, candid, and mild; proud or modest; and, in short, every variety of character. Many have the propensity to escape; they feel uneasy, and expect to be better somewhere else, &c.'

On the whole, we are compelled to state that our opinion of this publication is very unfavourable. It professes much, and performs little or nothing; it contains no matter which is new, nor is the old matter well expressed; it neither seems to be the result of original observation, nor does it furnish a condensed or well selected collection of the observations of others.

ART. IX. *An Essay on Capacity and Genius*; to prove that there is no original Mental Superiority between the most illiterate and the most learned of Mankind; and that no Genius, whether individual or national, is innate, but solely produced by and dependent on Circumstances. Also, *An Enquiry into the Nature of Ghosts, and other Appearances supposed to be supernatural*. 8vo. pp. 537. 15s. Boards. Simpkin and Marshall.

THIS somewhat bulky volume contains two disquisitions, preceded by an introduction, and followed by an appendix. The object of the essay *on Capacity and Genius* is to prove the doctrine of Helvetius, that all capacities are originally equal; that there is no innate superiority of one mind over another; and that education, in its largest sense, produces or evolves the eventual difference. The essay *on Apparitions* is designed to prove the doctrine of Nicolai that the visual phænomena, which have been occasionally mistaken for ghosts, are internal, involuntary perceptions, resulting from the disease and partial paralysis of the organs of imagination. We shall speak of each in its order.

The Introduction provides a summary view of the ensuing investigations, and insists on the doctrine of Locke that no ideas are innate. Now, though it may be strictly true that every idea is the memory of a sensation, and that there is nothing in the intellect which was not first impressed on the sense,

sense, yet there are *organic ideas*, which originate in every human individual, in consequence of internal and involuntary sensations; and these ideas are so independent of experience, or external communication, so proportioned in their relative vividness to the structure of the bodily organs, which are connate with perception itself, that they are as much conditions of our birth as the innate organs which occasion them. It is not, then, a great violence to precision of language if we call inherent tendencies to certain trains of idea by the name of innate ideas; and it has certainly not been proved by Loeke, or by any other person, that there are no innate tendencies. Yet the demolition of such tendencies is essential to the present author's system of the original equality of capacities.

In treating of capacity, the first argument advanced by this writer (p. 30.) is thus stated: 'Is it not plain, from the universal care and protection of the Creator, that no man was originally created superior to another?' We answer in the negative. As the Creator has given to man, compared with other animals, the advantage of a capacity for language, so he may have given to one man an original superiority over another. Equality of form, of power, or of endowment, even among animals of the same class, is neither the attribute of nature nor the duty of Providence. — A second argument is founded on what the author calls (p. 33.) the '*bad consequences of innatism*.' This again is a mere sophism. The utility of an opinion is not evidence of its truth. If the doctrine of a future state could be proved to be pernicious to mankind, this would not disprove the doctrine. War is an evil: but is it therefore unreal? — The author thus delivers his opinion:

'We say that all sensible children, *i. e.* all children whose senses are adapted to the operation of circumstances, have one common capacity for receiving ideas. It is true we have seen some children receive ideas earlier than others, appear more sprightly, and exhibit greater knowledge of the circumstances of which they are spectators: but there was a prior period, at which all children were alike. There is considerable difference in the rapidity of receiving ideas, in the first few years after birth; but it must be recollected that there is scarcely an instance of any two children, from the moment of their perception, having the same objects before them. — The difference of objects occasions a difference in their minds, and in the force and arrangement of their conceptions; but whenever a number of children have for any length of time been accustomed to congregate, to hear the same conversations, and to be the spectators of the same transactions, in proportion to the time they have remained, or as they have been of the same age when they came

together, so will their ideas become more nearly allied, and their whole conduct be more nearly similar. Familiar phrases, singular trains of ideas, and eccentric habits, are often acquired by boys at school in such a manner, that persons have perceived that they were educated under the same master, though perhaps they never before met or associated.'

Through this entire paragraph we search for argument in vain: all is mere assertion. 'One common capacity for receiving ideas;' what does this mean? Will any person contend that all children have one common capacity for receiving sensations? Is it not notorious that one child sees better than another; that one hears better than another; that one has longer fingers than another, or is more irritable to rapacity, more discriminative of contact? This is so certain, that children have been born deaf, blind, and maimed. Yet a sensation is but a motion at one end of a set of fibres; and an idea is but a corresponding motion at the other end of the same set of fibres. If sensations vary in vividness and distinctness, according to the organs employed in obtaining them, ideas must also vary in vividness and distinctness according to the organs employed in obtaining them: — but, if they so vary, it is false that children have a common capacity for receiving ideas. Q. e. d.

The second essay is less defective in argument than the first. We can copy a passage without being struck by the total neglect of all regular ratiocination:

'Amongst the ghosts which the imagination has created, we may enumerate all those that have been seen, in a manner, exclusively; for, why, if a man's perception were not diseased, could he see and receive answers from a ghost, whilst bye-standers neither perceived any thing, nor heard any sound, but the questions, which to their ears were unanswered? To be seen, and to utter sounds, a ghost must be substantial, and what affects the senses of one man must certainly, if it be external, affect the senses of all who are in the same situation, or nearly so, in point of distance or elevation. Thus, if a lighted candle be set at a particular distance from a large army, drawn out upon a plain, all the soldiers must inevitably see that candle, if to its flame their eyes are directed without any obstruction; but, if one man from an hundred thousand men, of which number we will suppose that army to consist, should say that he saw the ghost of a deceased relation, though no other person perceived any thing, would not he be considered as suffering under a momentary insanity? Besides, if a ghost appeared for any beneficial or important purpose, would it not be much more satisfactory to have as many witnesses of its appearance as possible? If, however, a ghost appears neither for any purpose nor to any but one person, though

Though others are present when it is *seen*, what is there that can prove it to be any thing but the effect of a disordered mind?

But the generality of ghosts are seen by persons who are alone, and at seasons when the imagination has most play, and the judgment least power. Their standard-hour is midnight, when sleep holds dominion over the greater part of mankind, and when the wisest, even if determined to be watchful, are liable to slumber away their philosophy. Many of the ghosts seen at the midnight hour are undoubtedly "waking dreams," as they are emphatically denominated. Some sudden overpowering influence sometimes so disengages us from our pursuits, that we imagine ourselves perhaps far distant from our real situation; or we suppose we are conversing with some friend, and seem to be just breaking off the conversation, when we are roused from our unconscious reverie. The slumber which is more general, late at night than any other, is that from which a man awakes, even after he may have slept an hour or two, or some considerable time, without having been conscious of his having slept at all, except from the state of his candle or his fire, or the difference in the hour. The only question therefore is, whether it might not easily happen that a man having fallen asleep, dreamt that he was in the room in which he really sate, and having seen in his dream an old and much respected friend, deceased, might not imagine that he had seen an apparition, and relate what had happened to him as such, after he had given it the fullest consideration? This might easily happen; and this appears to me to be the true cause of many of the apparitions with which the credulous have been too often troubled.

The circumstances attending midnight apparitions, if fairly considered, will, I think, confirm the opinion I have expressed. The falling of plates in the kitchen, or a dreadful crash of some kind, is frequently heard in haunted houses; but the most singular fact, which I have often had stated to me, is, that when one person hears the crash, not another person in the house is the least alarmed, though others must have certainly heard it, if it had ever taken place. Some few instances I have heard related, in which crashes were heard by the whole family, but then the families in those instances were unfortunately so much bigoted to supernatural phenomena, that they never so much as sought for natural causes for the noises by which they were disturbed. I am persuaded there is no man who does not remember, some time in his life, being surprised as he was dropping asleep by an involuntary jump, or sudden motion, as if he were falling down a precipice, and yet no man imagines that he is moved by any supernatural impulse. This has been attempted to be accounted for; but never yet has been explained to satisfaction. The same cause however, whatever it may be, appears to me to create these crashes, which are in the mind itself, and not commonly external. — These strange noises have from the creation preceded some kinds of midnight ghosts, only that they have altered with the times: they were wont in the days of our ancestors to be sudden

and tremendous rattlings of chains, or falling to pieces of armour, in modern *history*, however, they have been domesticated into a strife of dishes. It is observed, that in nocturnal visitations of the ghost kind, the candle generally burns blue, as a kind of announcement of the apparition. There was a time, when, instead of endeavouring to account for this from any rational cause, which most philosophers would have considered sacrilege, learned treatises would have been written to prove how the approach of a spirit, being the condensation of moisture from a dead body, *naturally* caused the light to burn blue and dimly. I believe, however, it will easily appear, that the candle's generally burning dimly before the ghost ventured into the presence of the person he was to terrify, was not occasioned by his being on his journey, but that in many cases the indistinct burning of the light caused the ghost-seer to conjure up shadows in the darkened part of his chamber, which would not have appeared had he been furnished with a consecrated, otherwise a thick and strong-burning candle.

' There is another species of ghosts, though somewhat more uncommon than the last mentioned, which have the singular property of enlightening the place in which they appear, by a sulphurous vapour, or a kind of phosphoric preparation. Many which may be classed under this species are explicable from the formation of ocular spectra. I remember a singular instance of this kind which happened to myself. In the middle of a very dark night I awoke in bed, and some association, which I cannot now recollect, brought to my mind some old man stirring his fire with a poker. Feeling my eyes about to close again to sleep at that moment, I mechanically opened them as a person does who is looking with great earnestness at any object, and to my surprise I saw, about a yard and a half from me, a complete representation of the old man stirring his fire. The fire was in a large square grate, and the light of it shone full upon the person. The whole scene was square, a circumstance which appears to me rather uncommon in such appearances, and altogether as if it had been enclosed in a picture frame, the limits were so well defined. — As well as I can recollect, it appeared about a foot and a half long, and a foot broad. — Many might be tempted to consider this a kind of miniature apparition, which really existed beyond the eye; but I found it was not so; by accidentally moving my head downwards (for it was with my eyes directed towards the ceiling that it appeared), the consequence was, that the whole picture went in the same direction, and, when my eyes were upon a level with the bed foot, all vanished. I mention the squareness of this vision not as extraordinary in itself, but because, with the exception of spectra formed by a window, it is the only thing of the kind which I ever recollect to have heard mentioned. I do not now remember having been in a room, whose section was furnished as that which I saw in miniature; nor could I call to mind a room of the particular kind which I saw, on my endeavouring at the time to find out its cause.'

How

How far it was necessary to repeat what Dr. Ferriar had so well said already on this subject, we leave to the individual taste of our readers: but certainly it may be useful to weaken the influence of an antient superstition still so extensively prevalent as the doctrine of ghosts. It is only in Europe, and only in the more enlightened nations of Europe, that this belief can be said to have become extinct.

The Appendix contains several ghost-stories, and forms perhaps the most entertaining part of the volume. Yet the writer's reading in this department is not all-pervading, and he has passed over the best authenticated ghost-story in our language. It was reprinted in the "Literary Magazine" for 1791, and occurs at pages 122. and 185. The account was written by the Rev. Mr. Evans, a respectable non-conformist minister at Minehead, and one of those who had resigned his benefices in consequence of the perfidious and oppressive act of uniformity. This prolix narration attests the appearance of several spectres, in distant places and to different persons, during the year 1636; all having for their object to charge Alberton, the Bishop of Waterford, with the murder of a bastard-child. A singular assertion of the ghost was (p. 124.) that the bishop baptized the child before he had it strangled. So many persons are introduced by name in this narrative, and so circumstantial and consistent is the evidence which they were led to supply, that various depositions were taken on oath, and were transmitted to the council-table at Whitehall, Charles I. being then king; and a judicial inquiry was founded on the evidence of spectres. It would have been worth the present author's while to account for the phænomena which this curious relation presents, on his favourite anti-supernatural principles.

ART. X. *A Chronological History of the Voyages and Discoveries in the South Sea, or Pacific Ocean.* Illustrated with Charts and other Plates. By James Burney, Captain in the Royal Navy. 4to. Vol. III. From the Year 1620 to 1688. pp. 437. 2l. 2s. Boards. — Vol. IV. to the Year 1723, including a History of the Buccaneers of America. pp. 580. 2l. 10s. Boards. — Vol. V. to the Year 1764. pp. 178, and 59 of Index to the whole Work. 1l. 1s. Boards. Nicol and Son, Payne and Foss, &c.

ART. XI. *History of the Buccaneers of America.* By James Burney, F.R.S. Captain in the Royal Navy. 4to. pp. 326. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Payne and Foss.

CAPTAIN BURNEY is very advantageously and voluminously known to the British public of nautical readers, by his *Chronological History of Voyages and Discoveries in the South Sea.*

The second parts were amply
... xliid, p. 135., and
... third volume continues, with
... the same completeness of
... and criticise the published
... and to abstract the
... in the British Museum.
... sections. Chapter I. gives an
... fleet to the South-Sea and
... intercourse of the Europeans
... on the island Formosa.
... Matthys Kwast to the sea east
... Captain Abel Jansen Tasman
... Savavia visited the greater part
... The expedition of Hendrik
... of the ships Kastrikom
... VII. Tasman's second
... detects a forged and imaginary
... of the first entrance of the
... Asia, and narrates the wreck of
... Quagpaert, with the captivity of
... of the western navigation from
... the taking of Formosa from
... preserves an early instance of
... sea, investigates the island Santa
... of Jean Baptiste de la Fol-
... the history of missionary-under-
... South Sea, with the settlement of
... Voyage of Captain John Nar-
... Chili. Chapter XIV. compares
... Europe to the South-Sea, by
... of the English East-India
... trade with Japan is recorded;
... Beach to the Molucca and Phi-
... Capt. B. abridges the voyage
... notices the Japanese discovery
... of that people occupy the
... A chart of the coast of
... well explained in the Ap-
... been made in recent voyages

... part is allotted to a special
... this recent portion of the
... and excites great interest
... state of the Columbian
... River-system may speedily
... preference. Rumours are
afloat

afloat that certain Generals of the Spanish patriots have been induced, for a moderate compensation, to issue letters of marque; that a patriotic judge of admiralty has been regularly commissioned; and that *El Filosofo*, *El Libérale*, and the other picaroon-boats of the rebels, are violating with the most profitable rapacity the *Nuestra Senyoras*, the *Santiagos*, and the *Santissima Trinidades* of the colonial craft belonging to the loyal Spaniards. We have no means of ascertaining the soundness and validity of these reports, nor can we say whether Amelia island be the principal place of resort for selling prize-cargoes: but it is evident that, if adventurers of other countries should annex Spanish terminations to their names, and take part in a privateering system directed against the shipping of that nation, a new Buccaneer naval war against the Legitimates may overspread first the Columbian archipelago, and next the South Sea and the Mediterranean. We trust, however, that a speedy and efficacious discouragement will be given by the friends of liberty, order, and security, to any equivocal or irregular tendencies and transactions hastily undertaken with the view or under the pretext of annoying the enemy; and that Europe will not be shocked with the revival of barbarous practices in a war of independence. The pernicious character of piratical force cannot be more strongly impressed, or more clearly demonstrated, than by the simple record of its features and acts when in the hands of the Buccaneers; and this has been accomplished by the present author in a very full, useful, orderly, and interesting manner.

Captain Burney's introductory chapter comments on the principles of international law, with the rights acquired by the discoverers of unknown lands, and endeavours to weaken the claims advanced by the Spaniards over the southern peninsula of America. Wherever an Indian settlement still exists on the sea-shore, a right to grant the territory to any European colony is inherent in the native population; and it may be very advisable for maritime and commercial nations to look out for such spots, in order to plant on them a series of Anseatic towns, each independent at home, but connected by bonds of defensive alliance, and determined to facilitate an internal trade, duty-free, with the savage nations of the interior.

The second chapter reviews the dominion of the Spaniards in Hayti, and describes in frightful detail the tyrannical manner in which the conquests of Columbus were originally accomplished. A chart of the Columbian archipelago is prefixed: but the little island of Guanahani, the first land which Columbus made, the point in which the Old and the New

...is left in anonymous
...the first attempts of other
...the West Indies. An English
...the view of selling iron goods
...ad by the Spanish governor.
...the Island Saint Christopher by the
...and the seizure of Tortuga by the
...they make an extract which explains the
...

...Island Saint Christopher gave great en-
...the west coast of *Hispaniola*. Their
...of meat, and for drying the skins, mul-
...increased they began to think it
...for their security. To this end they
...small island *Tortuga*, near the north-west
...the Spaniards had placed a garrison,
...to make opposition. There was a road
...anchorage, at *Tortuga*; and its separation
...of *Hispaniola* seemed to be a good guarantee
...expected attack. They built magazines there,
...of their goods, and regarded this island as their
...of general rendezvous to which to repair
...they elected no chief, erected no fortification,
...nor fettered themselves by any engagement.
...and they were negligently contented, at having
...towards their security.

...of their taking possession of *Tortuga*, they
...by the name of *Buccaneers*, of which appellation
...proper to speak at some length.

...cattle killed by the hunters was cured to
...after a manner learnt from the Caribbe In-
...as follows: The meat was laid to be dried upon a
...(*grille de bois*) which the Indians called
...a good distance over a slow fire. The meat
...*boucan*, and the same name was given to the
...Père Labat describes *Viande boucannée*
...*et à la fumée*. The Caribbes are
...prisoners after this fashion,
...*boucannés, c'est à dire, rotis*
...was a very favourite method of cooking
...A Caribbe has been known, on returning
...and pressed with hunger, to have had
...of a fish on a wooden grate fixed
...over a fire so small as sometimes to
...it.

...was in general dried in the smoke,
...*de Trevoux* explains *Bou-*
...to dry red without salt. But the
...the beeves when intended for
...salted. The same thing was
...practised

practised among the Brazilians. It was remarked in one of the earliest visits of the Portuguese to *Brazil*, that the natives (who were cannibals) kept human flesh salted and smoked, hanging up in their houses. The meat cured by the Buccaneers to sell to shipping for sea-store, it is probable was all salted. The process is thus described: "The bones being taken out, the flesh was cut into convenient pieces and salted, and the next day was taken to the *boucan*." Sometimes, to give a peculiar relish to the meat, the skin of the animal was cast into the fire under it. The meat thus cured was of a fine red colour, and of excellent flavour; but in six months after it was boucanned, it had little taste left, except of salt. The boucanned hog's flesh continued good a much longer time than the flesh of the beeves, if kept in dry places.

'From adopting the boucan of the Caribbes, the hunters in *Hispaniola*, the Spaniards excepted, came to be called Boucaniers, but afterwards, according to a pronunciation more in favour with the English, Buccaneers.* Many of the French hunters were natives of *Normandy*; whence it became proverbial in some of the sea-ports of *Normandy* to say of a smoky house, *c'est un vrai Boucan*.

'The French Buccaneers and adventurers were also called Flibustiers, and more frequently by that than by any other name. The word Flibustier is merely the French mariner's mode of pronouncing the English word Freebooter, a name which long preceded that of Boucanier or Buccaneer, as the occupation of cruising against the Spaniards preceded that of hunting and curing meat.'

We incline to think that Oxmelin uses these names more correctly than Capt. B., in his *Histoire des Avanturiers qui se sont signalez dans les Indes*, Paris, 1688. He says that the West-Indian adventurers were divided into three classes; that those who occupied themselves in the chase of wild cattle took the name of *Buccaneers*; that those who went on cruizes took the name of *Free-booters*; and that those who cultivated the soil called themselves *Planters*. We should have preferred, therefore, as the title of the present work, a history of the *Freebooters* of America.

Chapter V. describes the increase of the French and English free-booters in the West Indies, and the policy of the European governments of France and England with respect to these privateers. Mansvelt is considered as the founder of an independent Buccaneer-system; and he was succeeded by Morgan as chief of the Buccaneers. Chapter VI. relates the

* In some of the English accounts the name is written *Bucanier*, but uniformity in spelling was not much attended to at that time. Dampier wrote *Buccaneer*, which agrees with the present manner of pronouncing the word, and is to be esteemed the best authority.'

plunder of Panama by the marauders. This event may constitute an Iliad in the poems of future West Indians; and all the petty adventures of the sea-rovers, related by Oxmelin in the spirit in which they were performed, may become themes of ballads and metrical romances, and form the heroic age of the West Indies. Chapters VII—IX. relate various spirited enterprises of the Buccaneers; such as the attempt of Thomas Peach, an Englishman, in 1673, to fit out a privateer for a piratical voyage in the South Sea; that of Lasond, a Frenchman, to cross the isthmus of Darien; that of the French Buccaneers to take Curaçao; the plunder of Maracaibo and Gibraltar by Grammont; the seizure of Portobello by the English Buccaneers; their passage of the isthmus, and armament of vessels taken on the opposite shore to cruize in the South Sea; Coxon's enterprise against Santa Maria; and other such feats of daring. Of the Mosquito Indians, a curious account occurs; and many spots now neglected are brought into notice, as watering and careening places of the sea-rovers.

The tenth chapter relates the first Buccaneer-expedition in the South Sea. Sawkins, Coxon, Sharp, Watling, Shergall, and other Englishmen, here distinguish themselves. The interesting adventure of William, a Mosquito Indian, left by Watling on Juan Fernandez, is thus resumed in Chap. XIII.:

‘ When the Buccaneers under Watling were at *Juan Fernandez* in January 1681, the appearance of three Spanish ships made them quit the island in great haste, and they left behind a Mosquito Indian named William, who was in the woods hunting for goats. Several of the Buccaneers who were then with Watling were now with John Cook, and eager to discover if any traces could be found which would enable them to conjecture what was become of their former companion, but with small hope of finding him still here, as soon as they were near enough for a boat to be sent from the ship, they hastened to the shore. Dampier was in this first boat, as was also a Mosquito Indian named Robin; and as they drew near the land, they had the satisfaction to see William at the sea-side waiting to receive them. Dampier has given the following affecting account of their meeting. “ Robin, his countryman, was the first who leaped ashore from the boats, and running to his brother *Mosquito* man, threw himself flat on his face at his feet, who helping him up and embracing him, fell flat with his face on the ground at Robin's feet, and was by him taken up also. We stood with pleasure to behold the surprize, tenderness, and solemnity of this interview, which was exceedingly affectionate on both sides: and when their ceremonies were over, we also that stood gazing at them, drew near, each of us embracing him we had found here, who was overjoyed to see so many of his old friends come hither as he thought purposely to fetch him. He was named Will, as the other was Robin; which names were given them

them by the English, for they have no names among themselves, and they take it as a favour to be named by us, and will complain if we do not appoint them some name when they are with us."

'William had lived in solitude on *Juan Fernandez* above three years. The Spaniards knew of his being on the island, and Spanish ships had stopped there, the people belonging to which had made keen search after him; but he kept himself concealed, and they could never discover his retreat. At the time Watling sailed from the island, he had a musket, a knife, a small horn of powder, and a few shot. "When his ammunition was expended, he contrived by notching his knife to saw the barrel of his gun into small pieces, wherewith he made harpoons, lances, hooks, and a long knife, beating the pieces of iron first in the fire, and then hammering them out as he pleased with stones. This may seem strange to those not acquainted with the sagacity of the Indians; but it is no more than what the Moskito-men were accustomed to in their own country." He had worn out the clothes with which he landed, and was no otherwise clad than with a skin about his waist. He made fishing lines of the skins of seals cut into thongs. "He had built himself a hut, half a mile from the sea-shore, which he lined with goats' skins, and slept on his couch or *barbecu* of sticks raised about two feet from the ground, and spread with goats' skins." He saw the two ships commanded by Cook and Eaton the day before they anchored, and from their manœuvring believing them to be English, he killed three goats which he drest with vegetables: thus preparing a treat for his friends on their landing; and there has seldom been a more fair and joyful occasion for festivity.'

In Chapters XI—XIII. are related the appointment of the Buccancer Morgan to be deputy-governor of Jamaica, and his conduct in that capacity. Having been knighted by the crown, he lent active aid to the suppression of piracy, and efficaciously persecuted the sect of Free-booters from whom he had apostatized. The expedition against Vera Cruz, a second irruption into the South Sea, under John Cook, a sally to Sierra Leone, and a temporary occupation of the Galapagos islands, agreeably diversify the narrative.

Cook having died, and Edward Davis having succeeded to the chieftaincy, his attempts on Guayaquil, Santiago, Tomaco, Paita, and other places, are detailed in the fourteenth, fifteenth, sixteenth*, and seventeenth chapters. He added much to geographical knowledge: but less than the adven-

* At p. 190. is recorded a remarkable instance of the injurious effects of drinking excessive quantities of the milk of the cocoa-nut: some of the men becoming "so chilled and benumbed that they could neither go nor stand: nor did they recover under four or five days' time."

tures of the *Cygnets*, which was commanded by Captain Swan, and found a chronicler in Dampier. This cruize extends through chapters XVIII—XXII. A curious fact in naval architecture is the following :

‘ Dampier praises the ingenuity of the natives of the *Ladrone Islands*, and particularly in the construction of their sailing canoes, or, as they are sometimes called, their flying proes, of which he has given the following description : — “ Their proe or sailing Canoe is sharp at both ends ; the bottom is of one piece, of good substance neatly hollowed, and is about 28 feet long ; the under or keel part is made round but inclining to a wedge ; the upper part is almost flat, having a very gentle hollow, and is about a foot broad : from hence, both sides of the boat are carried up to about five feet high with narrow plank, and each end of the boat turns up round very prettily. But what is very singular, one side of the boat is made perpendicular like a wall, while the other side is rounding as other vessels are, with a pretty full belly. The dried husks of the cocoa-nuts serve for oakum. At the middle of the vessel, the breadth aloft is four or five feet or more, according to the length of the boat. The mast stands exactly in the middle, with a long yard that peeps up and down like a ship’s mizen-yard ; one end of it reaches down to the head of the boat, where it is placed in a notch made purposely to keep it fast : the other end hangs over the stern. To this yard the sail is fastened, and at the foot of the sail is another small yard to keep the sail out square, or to roll the sail upon when it blows hard ; for it serves instead of a reef to take up the sail to what degree they please. Along the belly side of the boat, parallel with it, at about seven feet distance, lies another boat or canoe very small, being a log of very light wood, almost as long as the great boat, but not above a foot and a half wide at the upper part, and sharp like a wedge at each end. The little boat is fixed firm to the other by two bamboos placed across the great boat, one near each end, and its use is to keep the great boat upright from oversetting. They keep the flat side of the great boat against the wind, and the belly side, consequently, with its little boat, is upon the lee.* The vessel has a head at each end so as to be able to sail with either foremost : they need not tack as our vessels do, but when they ply to windward and are minded to make a board the other way, they only alter the setting of the sail by shifting the end of the yard, and they take the broad paddle with which they steer instead of a rudder, to the other end of the vessel. I have been particular in

‘ * The *Ladrone* flying proa, described in Commodore Anson’s voyage, sailed with the belly or rounded side and its small canoe to windward ; by which it appears that these proas were occasionally managed either way, probably according to the strength of the wind ; the little parallel boat or canoe preserving the large one upright by its weight when to windward, and by its buoyancy when to leeward.’

describing

describing these their sailing canoes, because I believe they sail the best of any boats in the world. I tried the swiftness of one of them with our log: we had twelve knots on our reel, and she ran it all out before the half minute glass was half out. I believe she would run 24 miles in an hour. It was very pleasant to see the little boat running so swift by the other's side. I was told that one of these proes, being sent express from *Guahan* to *Manila*, [a distance above 480 leagues], performed the voyage in four days."

The history of French Buccaneers occupies the twenty-third and twenty-fourth chapters. In the next, the European governments take steps to crush the Buccaneer-system. In the twenty-sixth and twenty-seventh, Carthage is plundered by a Buccaneer-force in the pay of the French government: but, these adventurers having been cheated by the regular military out of their share of the prize-money, Carthage was ransacked a second time by them, and again yielded an enormous booty. This, however, is the last splendid enterprise of the pirates, whose independence may be considered as extinct at the peace of Ryswick.

The remainder of Captain Burney's fourth volume notices the voyage of Captain Strong to the coast of Chili and Peru; those of Gemelli Carreri and M. de Gennes; the expeditions of the Spaniards in California; the Scotch colony on Darien; the voyage of M. de Beauchesne Gouin; that of Halley; Dampier's voyage in the *Roebuck*; voyages of the Dutch to New Holland and New Guinea; voyage of Woodes Rogers round the world; French voyages in the South Sea; English South-Sea Company; voyage of Clipperton and Shelvocke; and, lastly, Roggewein's voyage round the world.

All these chapters contain something of value: but the abridgement of the several narrations is not sufficiently condensed for the greatest possible vivacity; and the same spots are re-visited and re-described by successive voyagers, often without adding any new feature to the scene. Captain Burney, however, is laudably anxious to preserve to every one the merit of any useful observation.

The small concluding volume, numbered V., brings the history down to the present reign. It consists of nine chapters; treating, 1. of the discovery and missionary visits to the Carolinas, or New Philippine Islands; 2. the voyage of Lozier Bouvet, to search for lands in the Southern Atlantic Ocean, comprizing the discovery of Cape de la Circoncision; 3. Commodore Anson's voyage round the world; 4. the wreck of the *Wager* frigate, one of the Commodore's squadron; 5. the Spanish missionary voyage to Patagonia, and the commercial

mercial voyage of the French ship *Le Condé* of St. Malo; 6. the voyage of the Spanish ship *Leon* to Chili and Peru, on a trading concern; 7. M. de Bougainville's voyage to the Malouines, or Falkland Islands; 8. of Islands marked in the Charts of the Pacific Ocean, and in the Tables of Situations, concerning which no other notices are found; 9. Supplementary Explanations and Corrections.

More than half of this volume is occupied by the third and fourth chapters, detailing the disastrous expedition of Commodore Anson, which is so well known to most English readers; and of the varied particulars contained in the brief summaries of the other multifarious chapters, it is impracticable for us to attempt any specific report.

Altogether, this must be considered as a great work, honourable to the individual and to the country; yet its magnitude borders on excess, its details on superfluity, its instructions on repetition, and its copiousness on redundancy. We should advise the author to abridge it for general circulation; and to make an octavo edition of it in a more compressed form. It is not easy, during the progress of a work, to foresee what can be spared in the earlier records: but, now that the task has terminated, it can be ascertained which of two parallel accounts has rendered the other superfluous, and a greater neatness of abstract might consequently be introduced.

A spirit of humanity and philanthropy pervades these pages; wherever any needless suffering is inflicted by the thoughtlessness of our sailors on the savages of the South-Sea islands, (and the instances are but too many,) the author vigilantly expresses disapprobation, and enters his protest; and, as the book is full of practical information, and will be industriously consulted by navigators, we have no doubts that it will operate beneficially on the future visitants of these distant shores.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR FEBRUARY, 1819.

POETRY.

Art. 12. *Airs of Palestine*; a Poem. By John Pierpont, Esq. 8vo. pp. 56. Printed at Baltimore.

We are well disposed to receive an American poet handsomely: but there must be bounds even to the national courtesies of literature. Mr. Pierpont shall display his own powers of verse by
a selec-

MONTHLY CATALOGUE, *Poetry.*

selection from his *Airs of Palestine*, which he has himself fixed as a motto to his poem :

' I love to breathe, when Gilead sheds her balm ;
I love to walk on Jordan's banks of palm ;
I love to wet my foot in Hermon's dews ;
I love the promptings of Isaiah's muse ;
In Carmel's holy grotts I'll court repose,
And deck my mossy couch with Sharon's deathless rose

This egotistical speech may be a sufficient proof that the *review* of Baltimore, if we are to judge by the present specimen, is in her infancy.

We could amuse our readers with several quotations from the dedication, addressed to an anonymous *clergyman*, who is like Berkeley, to have "every virtue under heaven." We find that *patience* is not omitted ; for certainly the present work, as it is, makes an ample demand even on the most friendly review for that celestial quality. '*The clergyman*,' too, has a due need of this virtue, in perusing the address of Mr. Pierpont, is not only prolix but somewhat offensive in his language. instance ;

' As to the manner of treating my subject, it is my own, and must be indulged in it. I mean this, as purely and exclusively *religious poem*. Yet I have endeavoured to avoid, as much as possible, the technical phrases of your profession. *'

We add a few scattered flowers.

' There, 'tis a string that soothes with slow vibration,
And here a burst that shakes the whole creation.' P. 12.

' Soon as the foaming dæmon hears that psalm,
Heaven on his memory bursts, and Eden's balm.' P. 15.

' Soon as dumb fear removes her icy fingers
From off the heart where gazing wonder lingers.'

The author of Rimini, who has more largely indulged in Hudibrastic terminations than any contemporary of any merit in England, has here the satisfaction of being kept in countenance by a trans-Atlantic kinsman of the tuneful quill.

Some of our readers will perhaps be pleased with the sight of an American *imprimatur*, or licence for publication.

' *District of Maryland, S.*

' BE IT REMEMBERED, That on this thirteenth day of November, in the forty-first year of the independence of the United States of America, John Pierpont, Esquire, of the said District, hath deposited in this Office the Title of a Book, the right whereof he claims as author, in the words following, to wit :

' *Airs of Palestine*, a Poem, by John Pierpont, Esquire.

' I love to breathe,' &c. &c. &c.

' * Or, to convey my idea in one short, though inelegant word — *cant*.'

‘ In conformity to the act of the Congress of the United States, entitled “ An Act for the Encouragement of Learning, by securing the Copies of Maps, Charts, and Books, to the Authors and Proprietors of such Copies, during the Times therein mentioned,” and also to the Act, entitled “ An Act, supplementary to an Act, entitled an Act for the Encouragement of Learning, by securing the Copies of Maps, Charts, and Books, to the Authors and Proprietors of such Copies, during the Times therein mentioned,” and extending the Benefits thereof to the Arts of designing, engraving, and etching, historical and other Prints.

‘ PHILIP MOORE, *Clerk of the District of Maryland.*’

Art. 13. *Ovid's Epistles*, translated into English Verse. By E. D. Baynes, Esq. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 150. Hookham. 1818.

It is stated that this volume is to be followed by two others, and that the whole is to contain a complete translation of the Epistles of Ovid, by one hand. With the exception of Sappho to Phaon, and two others by Dryden, Mr. Baynes thinks that these epistles have yet failed in meeting with an adequate English representation. Perhaps he may be nearly right in this opinion: but, when he quotes Dryden, and seems to agree with him in his observation that Ovid, in the Epistles, “ has taken a most becoming care that his amorous expressions go no further than virtue may allow, and therefore may be read by matrons without a blush,” we must record our dissent. Indeed, Mr. Baynes has himself furnished us with a complete refutation of this remark, in the work before us; where, although he has sought no opportunities of offending, he has been unable to avoid the faults of his author. The first epistle, or Sappho to Phaon, amply establishes the truth of this allegation; and, moreover, in the ‘ Argument,’ and especially in the ‘ Notes,’ the translator has stepped out of his way to introduce an improper allusion. As he is likely to have many occasions of transgressing in the same manner, during the execution of his work, we must beg to suggest to him that *Latin* quotations are an insufficient veil for indelicacy of subject; and that it is better to pass some matters in entire silence than even slightly to introduce them.

This translation seems, on the whole, to be a faithful copy of the sense of the original, and often conveys that sense happily and even elegantly in English verse: but, as the author talks of finding in the success of the present work a criterion of his abilities for original composition, we are bound to exhort him to put out all his strength on the present undertaking, in order that the trial may be indeed a fair one; and such as that man ought to undergo, who is doubting as to the expediency of adopting the perilous duties of a poet. The facility of composing tolerable English rhymes, with a Latin poet to suggest ideas before us, certainly is very great; and we believe that it is an accomplishment which many more English gentlemen possess, than those who deem it worth their while to make the experiment. *Poetry*, however, is another and a higher gift; and, when a Latin author has already been presented in a passable English dress, although different

ferent tailors have been employed on different parts of his suit, it becomes a new workman to be very careful indeed how he executes his task. We are far from thinking that Mr. Baynes is deficient in many qualifications for the attempt: but we do not see, in the present specimens, any such decided proofs of poetical genius as to make us sanguine on the subject. Let him, at all events, bestow more of the *limæ labor* on his second volume, and not admit such careless or unsatisfactory lines as the subjoined:

‘ The health I send, in kind return bestow,
Or, *you denying*, I can never know.’ *Paris to Helen.*

Mr. Baynes must *absolutely* resign the use of the *ablative absolute*, in English composition.

Ibid.: — a very awkward inversion: —

‘ But fierce as rising flames, *no less* desire
Itself betrays, than native light the fire.’

Again, in Dido to Æneas:

‘ Dido the cause, and sword which laid her low,
Æneas owed, her own was but the blow.’

We could add very largely to these instances of failure: but we shall rather select a more favourable example, and take leave of the author for the present.

‘ From human lineage, or from race divine,
Could never spring a heart so hard as thine;
But rocks or seas thy ruthless being gave,
As stone unfeeling, treacherous as the wave.
Oh! hadst thou seen me, conscious of thy flight,
E’en thou hadst melted at so sad a sight.
Yet what thou canst, in fancy view me now,
Distracted, hanging o’er a mountain’s brow;
Around whose heights the freezing tempests blow,
The foaming billows lash its base below;
My tresses floating to the breeze behold,
And members shiv’ring at th’ unwonted cold;
Uneven lines my trembling fingers trace,
And falling tears th’ unfinish’d words efface.

‘ Nor by my hated merits do I plead,
Nor claim I now thy kindness as my mead;
But if no safety to my cares be due,
For this, alas! deserve I death from you?
Where last my straining eyes thy bark could see,
I stretch my wearied arms as if to thee;
As if to thee, my beaten breasts I bare,
As if to thee my streaming tresses tear.
By all the floods of tears your treachery draws,
By all the pangs, by all the fears you cause,
By honour, justice, piety, and love,
By every name below, or pow’r above —
Change with the changing winds, replough the main,
And visit these detested shores again;

E'en if before be quench'd the vital flame,
 And the tir'd soul have left the harass'd frame,
 Yet may'st thou still the last sad office pay,
 And bear at least my poor remains away.'

Ariadne to Theseus—

This is very well; with the exception of '*my beaten breasts I bare,*' and some other minor imperfections,

Art. 14. *An Ode to Scandal*; to which are added, Stanzas on Fire. By the late Right Honourable R. B. Sheridan. The Comedy of the School for Scandal was founded on the above Ode. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wright. 1819.

We are not informed by what authority the publisher is justified in attributing these productions to Mr. Sheridan; and the manner in which he introduces them is rather equivocal. If they did proceed from his pen, they were probably the production of an early period of his life, before his wit had attained its final polish. Yet, though they are evidently unequal to the lines to Miss Linley, and to the Prologue to the Rivals, — and though they have not the neatness and elegance even of the songs in the Duenna, — still they have considerable merit. To give our readers an opportunity of judging for themselves, we present them with the concluding stanzas of the Ode, and with the whole of those on Fire.

- ' To woman every charm was given,
 Designed by all-indulgent Heaven,
 To soften care;
 For ye were form'd to bless mankind,
 To harmonize and soothe the mind:
 Indeed, indeed, ye were.
- ' But when, from those sweet lips we hear
 Ill-nature's whisper, envy's sneer,
 Your power that moment dies:
 Each coxcomb makes your name his sport,
 And fools, when angry, will retort
 What men of sense despise.
- ' Leave, then, such vain disputes as these,
 And take a nobler road to please,
 Let CANDOUR guide your way;
 So shall you daily conquests gain,
 And captives, happy in your chain,
 Be proud to own your sway.'

The stanzas on Fire were addressed to the Ladies Eliza and Maria Birmingham, daughters of the late Earl of Louth. The element is supposed to speak.

- ' In poets, all my marks you'll see,
 Since flash and smoke reveal me,
 Suspect me always near NAT. LEE,
 E'en BLACKMORE can't conceal me.

- ' In Milton's page I glow by art,
One flame intense and even :
In Shakespeare's blaze ! a sudden start,
Like lightnings flash'd from Heav'n !
- ' In many more, as well as they,
Through various forms I shift :
I'm gently lambent while I'm GAY,
But brightest when I'm SWIFT.
- ' From smoke, such tidings you may get ;
It can't subsist without me,
Or find me like some fond coquet,
With fifty sparks about me.
- ' In other forms I oft am seen,
In breasts of young and fair,
And as the virtues dwell within,
You'll always find me there.
- ' I with pure-piercing brilliant gleams
Can arm Eliza's eye ;
With modest, soft ethereal beams
Sweet Mary's I supply !

We observe an abruptness and want of *finish* in the concluding verses, which justify our belief that this was a juvenile essay : but some of the stanzas exhibit scintillations of that genius with which Mr. Sheridan dazzled the world, in the maturity of his talents.

Art. 15. *Prospectus of a Translation of the Works of Virgil* ; partly original, and partly altered from Dryden and Pitt. With Specimens. By John Ring. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

It is not very clear that the design announced in this title-page breathes that high and honourable spirit of literature, which we ever wish to see as the distinguishing mark of our native authors. We doubt whether a subsequent translator of a classical poet *has a right* to incorporate in his own work the successful passages of former versions ; and, even if we should be deemed too fastidious in this respect, we must maintain that so patch-work a composition can never give that entire pleasure, which the labours of one author are calculated to impart. Were it not for this defect in Mr. Ring's plan, and for the still better reason that the desideratum of an uniform translation of Virgil (of the *Æneid* at least) is now supplied by the masterly performance of Dr. Symmons, we should perhaps be disposed to favour the present undertaking.

In the *Prospectus*, Mr. Ring has given some concise and clever criticisms on the peculiarities of his great original, and he has also adduced some honourable authorities in favour of his own pretensions : but it is on the specimens here published that his claims as a translator must depend. We give an extract or two :

Orpheus, after the second loss of Eurydice : —

' O'erwhelm'd with grief, and frantic with despair,
Whither, oh ! whither shall he now repair ;

His lovely bride, in all her youthful charms,
 In all her bloom, twice ravish'd from his arms?
 In what new strain shall he the loss bewail,
 By what enchanting melody prevail;
 Soothe all the demons of the dark abodes,
 And calm the furies, and infernal gods?

' His much-lov'd consort for the Stygian coast
 Now sail'd, a shiv'ring melancholy ghost.
 Full sev'n long moons, he, cheerless and alone,
 To lofty rocks reveal'd his tender moan;
 Or mus'd, reclining in the gelid cave,
 Or told his anguish to the troubled wave;
 While lonely Strymon's ever-murm'ring stream
 Responsive echoes to the mournful theme.
 He charms the monster prowling for his prey,
 And soothes ev'n tigers with harmonious lay;
 With magic harp draws list'ning oaks along,
 And leads the grove with his enchanting song.

' So Philomela, from the poplar shade,
 Laments her loss thro' all the lonely glade;
 For ever doom'd her unfledg'd young to mourn,
 From the soft nest by barb'rous ploughmen torn.
 She moans, and perching on the plunder'd spray,
 Thro' the still night prolongs her melting lay;
 Of cruel fate incessantly complains,
 And fills the woodlands with her plaintive strains.'

The sin which most easily besets Mr. Ring is evidently that epidemic modern vice of versification, redundancy, or *verbiage*:—

' *O'erwhelm'd with grief, and frantic with despair.*'

Not one word of this in Virgil: without mentioning various other instances, in this extract, of a want of fidelity, and of a failure in the imitation of that majestic and perspicuous brevity which characterizes the style of Virgil.

With respect to the passage about the nightingale, in conformity with his plan of borrowing from his predecessors in their successful efforts, Mr. Ring, we conceive, ought here to have been "tracked in the snow" of Dryden: but comparisons are sometimes odious; and we have no time at present to discuss the point of relative merit.

We add the speech of Evander, on parting with Pallas:

' Oh! would almighty Jupiter once more
 My years recall, my pristine youth restore,
 Such as I was, when proud Præneste's wall
 Beneath this hand beheld her armies fall!
 When, crown'd with conquest, and transcendent fame,
 With hostile shields I fed the sacred flame;
 And sent gigantic Herilus, my foe,
 A mighty victim, to the shades below!
 The fair Feronia mingled with a god,
 And on her son three lives at once bestow'd.

Wondrous

Wondrous to tell! the warrior thrice was slain,
 Yet he reviv'd, and arm'd, and fought again;
 Thrice he commenc'd the fatal fight, and bled,
 And of his arms I thrice despoil'd the dead.
 'Such were I now, not all these dire alarms,
 Nor death itself should tear me from thine arms;
 Nor had Mezentius thus the slaughter spread,
 Nor thus insulted this devoted head;
 Nor thus, unpunish'd, stretcht his realm abhorr'd
 O'er towns dispeopled by his murd'ring sword.
 But hear, ye gods, and heav'n's great Ruler, hear,
 With due regard, a king's, a father's pray'r!
 My dear, dear Pallas, if the fates ordain
 Safe to return, and bless these eyes again,
 With all my suff'rings this one blessing give,
 This single comfort, may your suppliant live.
 But, oh! if Fortune has decreed his doom,
 Now, now, by death prevent my woes to come;
 Now, while my hopes and fears uncertain flow,
 Now, ere she lifts her hand to strike the blow;
 While in these feeble arms I strain the boy,
 My sole delight, my last surviving joy,
 Ere the sad news of his untimely doom
 Shall bow this head with sorrow to the tomb.'

The four lines beginning with 'nor,' and the three lines beginning with 'now,' are very awkward.

On the whole, we would rather encourage Dr. Symmons to revise and complete his task, than exhort any other author to attempt a new translation of Virgil.

HISTORY.

Art. 16. *Studies in History*; containing the History of England, from its earliest Records to the Death of Elizabeth: in a Series of Essays, accompanied with Reflections, References to original Authorities, and Historical Questions. By Thomas Morell. Vol. I. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Black and Son.

The author of this volume has already undertaken a history of Greece, which was reviewed in our lxxviith vol. p. 328.; and of Rome, which was mentioned in the same vol., p. 439.:—his studies are now directed to that of his native country.

No deviation from the old plan is to be observed in this new work. The same alternate chapters of historic fact and of evangelical reflection still occur; as if a volume of sermons had been interleaved with a Goldsmith's History of England, and then printed off as one continuous work. The mixture of Christian meditations certainly amalgamates better with modern than with antient history, not being Jewish; and it does not produce so unpleasant an effect here as in the two former volumes.

Somewhat excessive praise is bestowed on Cranmer: who was complainant to Henry VIII., and purchased his elevation by a hireling servility to the court. Under Queen Mary, he recanted

his Protestant principles, (if such they can be called,) in order to save his life, and submitted to martyrdom only when he could not help it. Other prejudiced statements might be indicated : but the information is in general full.

Art. 17. *A History of the Theatres of London*, containing an Annual Register of New Pieces, Revivals, Pantomimes, &c. With occasional Notes and Anecdotes. Being a Continuation of Victor's and Oulton's Histories, from the Year 1795 to 1817 inclusive. By W. C. Oulton. 3 Vols. 12mo. pp. 384, 360, and 265. 18s. Boards. Chapple. 1818.

Our opinion of Mr. Whalley Chamberlain Oulton's former work, which contained a period of twenty-four years from 1771 to 1795, will be found in our xxist vol. N. S. p. 120. The present volumes comprehend the succeeding twenty-two years, and bring the history down to the end of 1817. We observe an improvement in the arrangement, by appropriating one volume to each theatre, instead of the former plan, in which the division was regulated by seasons. Though the work does not pretend to be much more than a mere catalogue of dramatic productions, its manifest utility as a book of reference is considerably diminished by the want of an index.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 18. *The Danger of disseminating the Scriptures without Note or Comment, demonstrated from their Perspicuity: the Principle so much contended for by the Bible-Society.* By an Orthodox Churchman. 8vo. pp. 44. Seeley. 1818.

One party thinks that the Scriptures ought not to be circulated, according to the plan of the Bible-Society, without note or comment, on account of the *obscurity* in which they are enveloped, and which requires the aid of an exposition ; while another party contends that the Scriptures want both note and comment, on account of their *perspicuity*, which is often so great as to make no small degree of learning requisite to detect the figurative sense. Thus, those who maintain that the Scriptures need the aid of commentary, either because they are too obscure to be understood without it, or else so perspicuous that the literal meaning will be adopted to the prejudice of a more enlightened understanding, seem to have placed the friends of the Bible-Society between a cleft stick : for, if the *perspicuity* of the Scriptures demanded note and comment as much as the *obscurity*, it would follow in course that they ought not, on either account, to be circulated without note or comment.

The present author contends that ' the increase of Calvinism is the evil to be apprehended from the circulation of the Bible without note or comment ; ' and he very *ingeniously* argues that this evil is more liable to be produced by the *perspicuity* than by the *obscurity* of the unexplained Scriptures. The condensed summary of his argument on the subject is this ; that ' Calvinism lies so much on the surface of the Scriptures, that it requires a philosophic mind to perceive that the appearance is but

superficial ; and inasmuch as the common people do not possess that philosophic mind, it must consequently be a dangerous measure to put the Scriptures into their hands.' — 'This I apprehend,' says the *Orthodox Churchman*, 'to be a true statement of the case, and to point out clearly the real nature of the danger to be feared, which is, that the common people will rest in the Calvinistic or surface-meaning of the Scriptures, and totally overlook the philosophic or under-surface meaning which generally lies far too deep to be detected by their brute unconscious gaze.' (P. 19.) The author afterward adduces a variety of texts to shew how the unexplained Scriptures must, by their very perspicuity, tend to accelerate the growth of Calvinism, in the direct support which they seem to give to the Calvinistic doctrine of the depravity of human nature, of divine influences, of justification by faith, &c. ; and he then infers that, as the unexplained Scriptures are in much greater circulation now than they were formerly, and as the rapid increase of Calvinism is coincident with this circulation, the progress of the one is identified with the distribution of the other : 'but,' says the author, 'every orthodox churchman knows that *Calvinism is not the real doctrine of the explained Scriptures.*' His inference, therefore, is that, 'if the surface-meaning of the Scriptures countenance Calvinism, the Bible will be found unfavourable to the doctrine and influence of the orthodox clergy, and favourable to the doctrine and influence of the Calvinistic teachers.' — 'Here the Gospel-ministers have an incalculable advantage over the orthodox clergy : for all is easy and plain before them ; but when our divines come to such texts as those alluded to, their business is one of great labour and little comparative success. They are obliged by means of biblical criticism, philosophic research, and theological authority, such as Fathers, Councils, &c. &c., to dig down for the under-surface meaning ; and notwithstanding these aids, they often find the soil stiff, and that the sense which they want lies very far down indeed ; and after all when with much difficulty they have gotten it up, it is so unlike the surface-meaning, and sometimes so directly opposite to it, that the common people are little inclined to receive it, their vulgar minds not being sufficiently enlarged to comprehend how a passage of Scripture can say one thing and mean another, even its direct opposite.' (Pp. 30, 31.)

This is certainly a covert vindication of Calvinism and the Bible-Society, and an ironical attack on the enemies of both. It is written with considerable subtlety ; and the real drift of the publication is not immediately apparent.

Art. 19. *Reflections concerning the Expediency of a Council of the Church of England and the Church of Rome being holden, with a View to accommodate Religious Differences, and to promote the Unity of Religion in the Bond of Peace ; humbly, but earnestly recommended to the serious Attention of H.R.H. the Prince Regent, the Archbishops, the Bishops, Clergy, and all Lay Persons, who are able and willing dispassionately to consider the important Subject.* By Samuel Wix, A.M. F.R. and

A. S., Vicar of St. Bartholomew-the-Less. 8vo. pp. 100. Rivingtons. 1818.

Mr. Wix appears to be a devout and well-meaning man: but good intentions are not always accompanied with judgment, and experience will teach us that the most reverential piety may sometimes be wanting in intellectual penetration. He proposes to produce an unity of religious sentiment by means of a General Council of Protestants and Catholics. If such a council were even to meet, who can expect that the members would ever agree in any one of the disputable points which they might have to discuss? and, if they did agree, how would the real interests of religion be promoted more by their agreement than by their difference? The more diversely people think about religious doctrines, the wider is the space in which they may severally cultivate the growth of mutual charity; and, if all men thought alike on doctrinal points, one of the most favourable opportunities for the exercise of forbearance and the practice of charity would be lost. Where mutual charity and forbearance exist amid the endless discordances of doctrinal opinion, they prove that the religion of Jesus is devoutly cherished and rightly understood; and it is not to be expected that any large part of mankind should ever think alike on topics, which not only cannot be comprehended within the visible outline of geometrical diagrams, but are in the highest degree impalpable and obscure. Our Saviour, who well knew the great diversities of theological opinion which would arise out of individual interpretations of the Scriptures, did not make the excellence of his religion and the criterion of his disciples to consist in the uniformity of their belief, but in the universality of their charity. He did not say, "Your agreement in certain notions of the Divine nature shall cause all men to know that ye are my disciples:" but he declared, "By this shall all men know that ye are my disciples, *if ye have love one to another.*"

A second edition of this tract has just appeared, with an additional address to the Roman Catholics, and an Appendix relative to a recent German work which we mean shortly to notice.

Art. 20. *Reflections on the Influence of Infidelity and Profaneness upon public Liberty*; being the Substance of Two Discourses, preached at Laura Chapel, Bath, March 9. and March 16. 1817. By the Rev. E. W. Grinfield, M. A. Minister of Laura Chapel. To which is subjoined, a Plan for the Formation of National Circulating Libraries, for the Use of the Lower Orders of Society. 8vo. pp. 32. Rivingtons.

Mr. Grinfield has here made some sensible observations on the corrupting process of infidelity and profaneness, when they find their way among the labouring classes of the community. 'Infidelity,' says he, 'when it is addressed to the higher orders, generally keeps up some appearance of decorum; it approaches them in the form of abstract reasoning; it is blended with the narratives of history, or it glows in the visions of romance; but when it visits the cottage of the poor, it throws aside this decent disguise, and stalks abroad in the naked horrors of blasphemy

phemy towards heaven, and of contempt and rebellion against human institutions.' As one of the means of counteracting the demoralising poison which Mr. G. supposes to have been diffused among the people, he earnestly recommends the establishment of cheap circulating libraries; 'by which, for an annual trifle, the poor might be supplied with a great variety of popular publications, fitted to advance their moral and social happiness.' He very truly remarks that 'it is not any longer a question, whether our commonalty shall read or not—but *what* they shall read.' We cannot, however, agree with him in thinking that the selection of the books, out of which such libraries should be formed, 'should devolve to the National Society for the Education of the People in the Principles of the Established Church.' Those, who know how this Society is constituted, will by no means wish that it should be left exclusively to such persons to provide literary aliment for the reading part of the industrious population. If parochial libraries were generally established, the choice of the books should be left to a committee of the resident householders in the different parishes: who, being in general composed of persons of different religious persuasions, would not be likely to suffer the library to become a mere engine for supporting either a religious or a political party. The press, considered in its varied operations, has become a force of such gigantic magnitude, that we are not willing to leave more than a due proportion of it to any self-constituted society; even though it may be denominated '*National*,' and may number among its members some individuals of the highest rank and dignity.

Art. 21. *The Plain Bible, and the Protestant Church in England:* with Reflections on some important Subjects of existing Religious Controversy. By the Rev. W. L. Bowles, Prebendary of Sarum, &c. 8vo. pp. 117. 4s. sewed. Longman and Co. 1818.

This pamphlet consists of a sermon in the beginning, and of copious notes and reflections at the end. The sermon was preached in the church of Chippenham, on the occasion of forming a district-committee in aid of the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge. Mr. Bowles is one of those more moderate and enlightened members of the Church of England, who are arrayed against the more Calvinistical part of the Establishment; and he expatiates with much earnestness, and many indications of devout feeling, on the various merits and scriptural excellence of the Church of England. Though we have uniformly maintained that this church stands in need of farther reforms than she has yet experienced, we are willing to allow that her liturgy deserves the highest praise as a specimen of devotional composition; and, if it were purified from the controverted and uncertain doctrines with which it abounds, and made more comprehensive according to the pattern of the Lord's Prayer, which all sects may repeat with equal sincerity and approbation, it would be a formulary of unrivalled excellence for the purposes of social adoration. Mr. Bowles praises that declaration of the Church of England in her
ninth

ninth article, that "whatsoever is NOT READ in the Holy Scriptures nor may be proved thereby is not to be required of any man that it SHOULD BE BELIEVED AS AN ARTICLE OF FAITH." Had the Church indeed adhered to this declaration, and, in conformity to its letter and its spirit, had permitted a free discussion of scriptural truth within her walls, she would have merited the highest praise: but, at the very moment of her appeal to the Bible as the only rule of faith, she requires in all her members a subscription to her articles as the only true exposition of those Scriptures; and, as no minister of the Church is permitted to gainsay her articles, it is clear that his judgment on scriptural doctrines is to be regulated more by a blind submission to the articles than by a critical examination of the sacred writings. His biblical knowledge must not carry him beyond the precincts of those articles; for, if it should, ecclesiastical censure, or deprivation of preferment, may ensue. These articles, therefore, of which Mr. Bowles commends 'the moderation and caution,' are a stumbling-block in the way both of conscience and of truth.

We entirely concur with Mr. B. in the praise which he has bestowed on the numerous and resplendent examples of learning, and of piety, which the Church of England has produced: but these instances would be still farther extended, if the liturgy were rendered more comprehensive and the articles more simple and scriptural. The Establishment would then comprize within its walls more of the worth and the talents of the country; and its joint stock of moral and intellectual excellence would thus be indefinitely increased.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 22. *A Letter to Henry Brougham, Esq. M. P., from John Ireland, D. D., formerly Vicar of Croydon, now Dean of Westminster.* 8vo. 1s. Murray. 1818.

We cannot but think that the author of this letter has rather unnecessarily taken offence where none was designed, and has defended himself from an attack which has never been made: for we neither find in Mr. Brougham's Letter to Sir Samuel Romilly a single word that conveys an imputation against the Dean, nor do we imagine that the questions put to the witness, or the answers, can have left an impression unfavourable to him. Mr. Brougham, however, has certainly laid himself open to censure by unguardedly using expressions which may be misrepresented. When he says that the "two estates belonging to the poor of Croydon, which ought to bring between 1000l. and 1500l. a-year, are worth nothing from being badly let on ninety years' leases," many persons may chuse to understand the expression literally, though he evidently used it only in a comparative sense. This ambiguity should be avoided. When charges are brought forwards, they should certainly be stated explicitly and clearly; since, if that is not done, the exposure of one mis-statement casts a doubt (and not unfairly) on all that remains, however true. The manner in which the two estates are let is satis-

satisfactorily explained in a letter from Mr. Drummond, solicitor to the trustees, printed as an appendix to this pamphlet. With regard to the application of the money, however, it appears from the Dean's letter that 'a grammar-school is annexed to the Hospital; where the very poor of Croydon were to be taught freely,' but that 'perhaps for about half a century past, there have been no scholars;' and that the original grammar-school is now appropriated to the use of the scholars on the new plan of national instruction. It is also stated that the privilege of sending scholars, enjoyed by the inhabitants, has been 'repeatedly announced' to them, and that not a single proposal has been made for the admission of children there:—but it strikes us that, had the benevolent inhabitants of Croydon used the same diligence in explaining to the poor their privileges, and inducing them to send their children to the old foundation-school, which they have exerted with respect to the new establishment, the same benefit would have been conferred on the objects of their bounty, at considerably less expence; since no reason appears to prevent the improved system of education from being introduced into the one as well as the other. The establishment, therefore, of the new school for the poor of Croydon can scarcely be called a charity on the part of its opulent inhabitants, but must be considered rather as rendering the foundation-mastership more completely a sinecure;—while it evidently must also tend to deprive the necessitous of a part of that bounty which is thus uselessly applied.

We regret, but are not surprised at, the handle which is made of the errors imputed to the author of the letter to Sir Samuel Romilly, by which the whole inquiry is attempted to be thrown into disrepute. We will only beg our readers to call to mind how many instances come within their own knowledge of charity-funds being abused and misapplied, in order to prevent them from being influenced by such attempts, and rendered lukewarm on a subject that requires so much investigation.

Art. 23. *Brief Memoirs of Four Christian Hindoos*, lately deceased, published by the Serampore Missionaries. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Gale and Fenner.

The singular accounts which are here related, of the conversion of four natives of Hindoostan to the Christian faith, will be extremely interesting to all who entertain a solicitude for the more general dissemination of the Gospel. However laborious may be the task of the missionary, or however partially his toils may have been hitherto recompensed, this little volume tends to prove that something has already been done, and may support the argument that more may follow. Yet, if it be urged that the minds of the Gentiles, in the time of the Apostles, were at least equally bigoted with those of the Brahmins in our own, it will obviously be replied that the zeal, the knowledge, and the perseverance of the modern missionary are not to be mentioned in the same breath with those of the immediate followers of Christ, and that the age of miracles is at an end. It is much to be doubted, therefore, under

under all the circumstances, whether human efforts will be instrumental, at the present day, in producing a similar effect, to any degree that can lead to material consequences, desirable as such a result might be.

Art. 24. *Caution and Information to Life Ensurers*, in a Correspondence between One of the Ensured, and the Secretary of the West of England Assurance Company. 8vo. Pamphlet.

The benefits offered by Assurance-Companies, when conducted on honourable and liberal principles, are incalculably great: since they furnish the means of providing for the aged, the fatherless, and the widow; of saving from penury and distress thousands of deserving members of society; and of soothing the last pangs of an affectionate and expiring husband or father. We are, therefore, always sorry when we find the conductors of such a society actuated by motives unworthy of the benevolent views which they profess to espouse: but that such instances sometimes occur, we may regret, though unfortunately we cannot doubt; and even in the case before us, according to the representation given of it by the author, we perceive much to blame on both sides, — that is, on the part of the insurers and that of the insured. The former, we think, ought to have stated more distinctly the terms on which they proposed to act, and the latter certainly ought to have understood explicitly what those terms were before he engaged in so large a sum. The case appears to be this: — The author insured his life in 1809 for 3000*l.*, and has since continued his annual payments to the amount of 1300*l.*; during which time he has expected that the principal sum was accumulating, and finds that it would have accumulated in certain offices to 3555*l.*: but on inquiry he is informed that such a proceeding is not consistent with the plan of the West of England Society; although, as he maintains, their first prospectus led him to suppose that he might look forwards to an improvement in the sum originally insured. He complains that the profits arising from the life-insurances have been transferred to the fire-insurers in the same society; and he intimates that, the latter being principally yearly customers, their good will has been purchased by dividing among them the profits which ought to have been shared by the former: who, when once engaged, are so bound for life, unless they wish to relinquish all claims on the funds.

It is not our province to enter into the dispute between these parties: but we would certainly advise any person, who is intending to insure his life, to read the little pamphlet before us; because it will have the effect of putting him on his guard, and will point out the necessity of clearly comprehending the terms on which he is about to engage. — In enumerating the advantage of other societies, the writer refers particularly to the Norwich Union: but we are sorry to find, from advertisements which have lately appeared in the London papers, that all is not *unity* here; considerable dissatisfaction prevailing with respect to the application and deposit of the funds of that Society.

Art. 25. *Memoirs of the late Mrs. Elizabeth Hamilton.* With a Selection from her Correspondence, and other unpublished Writings. By Miss Benger. 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

From the Hamiltons of Woodhall, Mrs. Elizabeth Hamilton believed herself to be descended. Her father, a merchant, died in necessitous circumstances during the year 1759, leaving a widow and many children. Elizabeth was born in the year 1756, at Belfast, and lost her mother in 1767. She was then generously taken under the protection of her uncle and aunt Marshall, whose house stood in a lonely rural situation near Stirling in Scotland, to which town she daily walked for her schooling. In her thirteenth year, she was withdrawn from the public school, and placed under the care of a domestic preceptress: but, when of age to go abroad, some relation invited her to Edinburgh, where she became acquainted with Dr. Moyse, and attended his chemical lectures. Mr. Marshall, meanwhile, removed to Ingram's Crook.

In 1772, the brother of Miss Hamilton obtained a cadetship in the East-India Company's service; and the attempt to correspond with him, and to give him an account worth sending to the Indies of a Highland tour which she had undertaken, occasioned her first efforts at composition, which were shewn in the family and among acquaintance. The praise bestowed on them stimulated her to write a sort of historic novel, in letters, concerning Lady Arabella Stuart. From correspondence dated in 1783, it appears that Mr. Charles Hamilton wished his sister to join him in Hindostan. The protection of a brother is always an honourable one, and might have led to some advantageous matrimonial connection: but Miss Hamilton could not bear the idea of setting out unaccompanied.

In 1786, Mr. Charles Hamilton returned to England, in impaired health, for the purpose of publishing his translation of the Hedaya, which was completed in 1791; and he died in the year following. Probably, his account of Oriental manners and prejudices much contributed to suggest the *Letters of a Hindoo Rajah*, which Miss Hamilton first published in 1796, and which are deservedly admired for their poignant vivacity. In a delineation of the character of Percy, a beautiful tribute of regret is offered to her justly lamented brother.

The *Modern Philosophers*, which appeared in 1800, is an inferior work; sarcastic yet not lively, personal yet not dramatic: the times supported it, but support it no longer.

Meritorious, and practically useful, though somewhat heavy works of Mrs. Hamilton are those on Education, such as the *Letters* printed in 1801; the farther *Letters addressed to the Daughter of a Nobleman*, in 1806; the *Exercises in Religious Knowledge*, 1809; the *Essays on the Elementary Principles of the Human Mind*, 1812; and the *Hints addressed to Patrons of Public Schools*, 1815. These books, however, are too full of metaphysics, of repetitions, and of subdivisions; and they have a certain degree of pious dulness, which suggests the idea of their being reminiscences of sermons.

The Memoirs of Agrippina were published in 1804: they vary too much from true history, and ought not to have been undertaken by any person who could not read Latin. We recollect in one of the magazines of the time an epigram directed against this work, which runs thus:

“ Detested by thy prince Tiberius,
Plagued with a wife the most imperious,
Shov'd into Styx by Piso thy best friend;
And have a life thus d—d ill done
By Miss Eliza H——n:—
Germanicus, thy woes are without end.”

Next to the Letters of a Hindoo Rajah, the *Cottagers of Glenburnie*, published at Edinburgh in 1808, form the most delightful work of this author; and the latest which she can be said to have completed in the full possession of her health, faculties, and spirits. Notwithstanding several tours into Ireland, through London, Bath, and elsewhere, undertaken at different periods for the purpose of recovery, a dyspeptic complaint, of which gout was one prominent symptom, made heavy inroads on Mrs. Hamilton's comforts; and it finally induced her to quit Edinburgh, where she most frequently resided, and to take up her abode at Harrogate, the mineral waters of which place had been strongly recommended to her by physicians. There she died on the 23d of July 1816, in the sixtieth year of her age.

Such are the principal facts related with much detail in this spacious biographical memoir; which contains moreover many entire letters of the deceased that were not intended for publication, and were not deserving of it. Several agreeable poems, however, are also interspersed, which display a command of the Scottish dialect. To the first volume are appended some Essays, not before collected, which had appeared in *the Lounger*, and *the Breakfast-Table*; and which are good of their kind. To the second volume, which consists chiefly of unimportant letters, are added *Remarks on the Book of the Revelation*; which are truly pious, but deficient in critical knowledge, and not honourable to the natural rationality of the fair writer. It would have been better if Miss Benger had entirely suppressed this tract, and annexed the previous two hundred pages to the first volume; which would then have formed a sufficiently extensive memorial of this most conscientious, most principled, most industriously useful, and most zealously religious author.

SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 26. *On the Advances in Knowledge, Freedom, and Morals, from the Reformation to the present Times.* Preached to Young People, at the Meeting-House in Monkwell-Street, January 4. 1818. By James Lindsay, D.D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hunter.

The very respectable author of this discourse adopts the reverse of the proposition that past times were better than the present, and argues that the present are better than the past. Indeed, it is

is too well known to need proof that, during the last three hundred years, a constant increase has been taking place in knowledge, and an unceasing improvement in all the arts of civilized life. Every thing that is valuable and useful, and all that most elevates or adorns individuals or society, must be more or less connected with the advancement of knowledge; for nothing that is truly good, or really ennobling, can come out of ignorance. If, then, we measure past times with the present by the relative degree of intellectual improvement, the existing period is as the glorious refulgence of day compared with the palpable obscuration of the darkest night. One of the most remarkable and cheering characteristics of our times is, that ignorance is no longer considered as the best political engine for the government of man. 'The savage notion,' says Dr. Lindsay, p. 17., 'that the ignorance of the multitude is the strength of the state, which in my early days had numerous and open advocates, among those who deserved to be slaves themselves, because they wished to make slaves of others, is now held in comparative concealment, and exposed by public opinion to merited infamy.'

Of all the kinds of knowledge, none has certainly been so generally diffused as that which may be denominated scriptural, or religious; and, in this respect, the Bible-Society has operated like a sort of engine, with a wonderfully multiplied and multiplying power. 'Men of all persuasions,' says Dr. L., 'seem now convinced that the best service they can render to Christianity, next to that of a virtuous life, is to contribute to the spread of that knowledge which will free it from its remaining fetters, and give it all its genuine influence over the heart.'—'The harshness of speculative dogmatism is daily softening, by joining in practical exertions for the support of principles which are common to all; and even our controversial disputes, with a few exceptions, which meet from the public no great encouragement, are becoming less virulent in their spirit, and more courteous in their manner than at any former æra.' In these and in many other respects we coincide in opinion with this author, that former days were inferior to the times in which we live.

CORRESPONDENCE.

To the EDITOR of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

'Sir,

'I am obliged to you for pointing out any thing which by a misconstruction might have had a different effect from what I intended, in my Introduction to Botany, and I beg leave to assure you that the Fourth Edition of that Work, now in the press, is free from the objection alluded to. I remain, Sir, your very obedient servant,

'Norwich, Feb. 8. 1819.

J. E. SMITH.'

To the EDITORS of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

'Gentlemen,

'On reading your Number for November last, I was struck with your remarks on the religious sentiments of Morris Birkbeck, and cannot feel
satisfied

satisfied without making a few observations on them. That he was educated a Quaker is undoubtedly true; but he has long ceased to be a member of that Society; and though I am not sufficiently acquainted with him to be able to say whether he may retain any sentiments which were gained from that source, I certainly can assert that indifference to Public Worship could not be one of them.

'As a Society the Friends hold this duty sacred, and earnestly enforce it on all connected with them; not only considering it as a social duty but as a solemn acknowledgment of allegiance to our Great Creator, and one means by which we are to seek renewal of strength for his service.

'William Penn has afforded us an instance to the point; when he took a colony into the wilderness, he did not leave them as insulated beings without the sweet consolation of public "social worship;" on the contrary, we are told, "they worshipped in tents until they were able to build meeting houses;" thus giving an example to all his followers of strict attention to this important duty, at the same time securing to each sect the right of performing it in the mode they might consider as most consistent with the Divine commands.

'You are right in supposing the Quakers to have an entire disapprobation of preaching for hire, considering it as inconsistent with the Gospel-dispensation: but mistaken in asserting them to consider all who receive pay either from the state or the people as "wolves in sheep's clothing, and children of the man of sin;" on the contrary, they believe many of each description to be actuated by far nobler motives than a love of gain, and that numbers are to be found among the different sects of Christians who are truly ministers of the Gospel, endeavouring to divide the word to every man severally as he hath need, and to be examples to their flock in all Christian virtue.

'As attendance on Public Worship is a practice which the Quakers are earnestly desirous of promoting in other societies as well as their own; you will, I have no doubt, admit the propriety of their wishing through the medium of your pages to correct a statement which appears to convey sentiments so entirely opposed to their views.

'Feb. 9. 1819.

'A MEMBER OF THE SOCIETY OF FRIENDS.'

It is not our intention that S. Y. shall be 'entirely forgotten:' but he rightly alludes to the multitude of demands on our attention, and we must request him to favour us by making some proportionate demand, reluctant as it may be, on his own patience.

An old Friend with an old Face shall (D. V.) have some of his wrinkles "wreathed into smiles," as far as the gratification of the wish expressed in his letter can produce that effect, when our next number salutes him.

*** The APPENDIX to Vol. lxxxvii. was published with our last Number, and was occupied by a variety of interesting articles in *Foreign Literature*.

☞ Subscribers to the GENERAL INDEX to the New Series of the Monthly Review, and all possessors of sets of that portion of the work, are requested to apply speedily for copies of so necessary a key to this multifarious record of literature, without which their sets will not be complete; a very limited number of the Index having been printed.



THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MARCH, 1819.

ART. I. *An Universal History*, in Twenty-four Books. Translated from the German of John Von Müller. 3 Vols. 8vo. 11. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

THE name of the late M. Von Müller is known to our readers as that of a very respectable author; and in our xxvth volume, N. S. p. 540., we noticed with applause and commented with attention on a former production of his pen. We feel, however, inclined to regret that he did not rather complete that history of Switzerland, by continuing it down to our own times, than undertake a fresh task, for which he was less qualified by his line of study or his range of thought. Accustomed to antiquarian detail, to topographic industry, and to the perpetual perusal of charters, documents, and pedigrees, he was more adapted to exhaust local sources of information than to sketch the lapse of the currents of a world; and, inclined by nature to use the microscope in preference to the telescope of intellect, a narrow field of view was best adapted to his survey. // As the historian of a province, he merited great reputation: but he has not that rapid eagle-eye, which can look down on the entire scene of human event, and preserve every where a distinct, proportioned, and comprehensive picture of the whole. He rather resembles the bird of Minerva:—in dark times and rifted ruins, he can spy small objects of difficult detection, and willingly flits to and fro with persevering patriotism over the same dim, noiseless, and secluded scene. His very reflections have a domesticity of character; from the tumult of war and the conflict of parties, he turns aside with an alarmed ear; and, instead of contemplating their bearing on the destiny of nations, he rather inquires for their effects on private happiness.

Three introductory sections treat of the world, of Europe, and of political constitutions. The Leibnitzian doctrine is espoused, that the ocean is in a state of progressive desiccation; and that in the primeval islands, formed by the summits

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mits of the principal masses of mountains, were reared the first nations, which probably differed from each other in complexion and manners more than they do now, when reciprocal access has facilitated a freer admixture. In Tibet, as the highest habitable level, is placed the seat of the earliest civilization. The plants and animals most valued in Europe are known to have been imported from eastern countries. Government began in a patriarchal and acquired a military form, the abuses of which gave occasion to the institution of an order of priests, or elders, who endeavoured to substitute traditional for despotic principles of rule.

The first book surveys the state of mankind from the origin of the human race to the period of the Trojan war. The primitive condition and abode of man, and the antiquity of the human species, are discussed; and a period of about 7500 years is assigned for the past duration of a race of men on the earth. History begins with the earliest records, which have been preserved in the Jewish Scriptures, and were necessarily posterior to the invention of alphabetic writing. This art probably originated among the Parthians; that is, the people of the river Prath, or Euphrates; because most other alphabets are derived from the Hebrew alphabet, and the names of the letters adopted from it are in the Hebrew language significant. The memoir of the house of Abraham, contained in the book of Genesis, is the oldest chronicle extant: it precedes the time of Moses, who brought it with him out of Ægypt in the ark, and who quotes it in his own writings. So the ruins of the tower of Babel form the oldest existing monument of architecture. — From Persia, the author passes on to Assyria, to the Syrian coast and Phœnicia, to Colchis and Scythia, to the Arabians, Jews, and Phœnician colonies, to Ægypt, Asia Minor, Greece, Crete, and Italy, and lastly to the Trojan war. The history of Assyria is most defectively and imperfectly given: indeed, no skilful attempt has yet been made to reconcile the Jewish chronicles with the testimony of Herodotus, though much information is preserved in these two sources, which it was an historian's duty to abridge. If, as it begins to be allowed, the word *Αχαιμενιδαι* in Herodotus be every where a corrupt reading for *Αβραχαιμενιδαι*, denoting Abrahamites, it seems to follow that Cyrus, Cambyzes, and Darius, were all of Jewish descent, clan-chieftains of those tribes who were transplanted into the cities of the Medes by Shalmaneser, and who, under Cyrus, gained the upper-hand of their conquerors. This supposition can alone account for the proclamation of Cyrus preserved by Ezra, in which that prince professes to hold communion with the worshippers at Jerusalem;

Jerusalem; and for the yet more important fact that the feast of Purim, instituted by Darius to commemorate the expulsion of the idolaters from Persia, was also observed in the temple of Palestine.

Book II. extends from the Trojan war to the time of Solon. The account of Babylon and of Ægypt is very meagre; that of Athens, Sparta, Rome, and Carthage, is less defective: but neither primæval history, nor Greek classical history, appears to have been studied in their sources by the present author. The third book is devoted to literary history, and treats of Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, and of the dramatists, orators, philosophers, and poets of Greece. The fourth describes the revolutions of Greece, from the age of Solon to the conquests of the Romans in Asia. Books V, VI, VII, and VIII. are allotted to Roman history. The principal writers first pass in review; and the author has manifested original inquiry in these books, not presented us with a tame repetition of extant epitomes. The republic, the state of Rome under the Cæsars while the forms of the Latin republic were preserved, and the state of Rome when the Greek language and oriental forms of administration began to supersede Roman institutions, are the three periods into which the narrative is distributed. Under Constantine, Alexandria completed her moral conquest of Rome, and forced on the metropolis of the empire her Christian religion, her Greek dialect, her commercial morality, her Jewish manners, her oriental spirit of administration, and her preference of gold to iron.

Book IX. comments first on the history of religion. After an introductory section, the religious systems of the East are examined, the decline of the Greek and Roman heathenism is described, and Moses is appreciated with some singularity of manner and opinion. Corrective notes of the translator, however, are opposed to some propositions of the author which are not deemed orthodox: he seems to consider the patriarchal religion as instinctive, and so far revealed, but not as clearly founded on supernatural communication. Schiller's work on the Legation of Moses may be supposed to have influenced M. Von Müller's point of view. The history of the Jews is very hastily surveyed in the fifth section. To Jesus Christ a separate section is consecrated, somewhat mystically expressed, but leaning, if we mistake not, towards the doctrines of the anti-supernaturalist Unitarians. The author frequently betrays symptoms of belonging to the school of Eichhorn, Wieland, and Paulus; and, though he mentions the resurrection of Christ, he seems rather to consider it as a

marvellous recovery than as a miraculous re-animation: yet his attachment to the doctrines and to the faith of Christ is evident. The foundation and first corruptions of the Christian religion are related by him with mildness and candour; and a description is given of the hierarchy which resulted. We extract the reflections which conclude this book, as characteristic of the writer's most peculiar views.

‘ Vain contentions afterwards sprung up in the church concerning the relation of Jesus to the eternal Father, against which he himself had warned his disciples. Hence a system of belief was formed, which consisted of a string of tenets and authoritative dogmas, the foundation of which was laid in error.

‘ Another source of corruption in religion existed in the new Platonic philosophy which flourished at Alexandria. Plotinus, Jamblichus, and Porphyry felt the weakness of the mythology which they laboured to support; they accordingly turned it into allegory, and concealed some things under a cloak of mystery, while they set others in comparison with the scriptural writings, which were equally destitute of a philosophical construction: thus they induced men, who were endowed with more genius than sound learning in the languages and character of antiquity, to give up the literal sense of the sacred writings, and to seek, in arbitrary conjectures, for a hidden meaning. The philosophers also held the Gnostic principle of separating the soul from the impure affections of the body. This became, in the hands of the bishops, who were determined not to be left behind in any specious doctrine, the fruitful source of many prohibitions contrary to nature, and tending to throw a gloom over human life. Among other absurd practices, it gave rise to the seclusion of useless and indolent monastics. The Alexandrine philosophers failed of their object, which was to support mythology; their representations were too artificial, and their language betrayed a secret weakness: the people require teachers who assume a decisive and authoritative tone.

‘ When the Christian church had extended itself over the whole empire, and beyond its boundaries, and well organized under its bishops, archbishops, and patriarchs, had stood, with unshaken fortitude, under the ten years' persecution of Diocletian; when its votaries had displayed to the world a far greater zeal for the earning of martyrdom than for the preservation of their lives; when the eyes of mankind were fixed upon virtues exalted to heroism, and even weakness elevated to the dignity of virtue; when all the abuses and irregularities which had crept in gave way all at once to the most wonderful demonstrations of strength, and from the ashes of the martyrs, as in ancient Rome from the blood of the legions, the warriors of the faith sprang up a hundred fold, all nations became at length convinced, that the churches of Christendom were inspired by motives of invincible strength — that they were animated by clear and certain prospects of an infinite and glorious futurity.

' These things attracted the attention of Constantine, whose father, induced by wise and gentle principles, had put an end to persecution in his portion of the empire. If Constantine was not always guided by correct views, he was at least inclined to great and novel undertakings. It seemed to him advantageous to his interests to declare himself on the side of the oppressed church. It was, besides, a part of his design, in the place of the antiquated, corrupt, and declining religion, to introduce one which was held in the highest veneration by the people. A measure of this nature was necessary, in order to give a new soul to the whole system of political society, the machinery of which had now become worn out and unserviceable.

' We have so far traced the history of the various representations and revolutions by which those principles have been set forth and renewed which are engraven on our nature, and which have been preserved by tradition, though often darkened by a temporary obscurity; principles which elevate the unlettered person who believes them above the wise and great who reject their authority; which raise man above the limits of time, and exalt the human soul to the highest imaginable hopes of advancement in wisdom and excellence. He who is incredulous sees in these things the history of a delusion which has been and yet is more fertile in virtue, consolation, and happiness, than the most deeply reflected systems of scepticism. Those who hold the testimony thereof enjoy, in surveying the history of the human race, the same advantage which they experience in resolving the perplexities of human life; a faith pure and gentle leads them, as the pillar of fire guided the host of Moses, not dazzling them, but animating their footsteps through the dark and gloomy paths of this world of mortality.'

The tenth book narrates the reign of Constantine, of Constantius and his brothers, of Julian, of Jovian, Valentinian, and Valens. The decline of the empire does not invite equal detail. The irruption of the Huns and Goths, the reign of Theodosius the first and his sons, and the age of Valentinian the Third, lead on successively the destruction of the Western Empire, with which the first volume concludes. This volume is barren of fact, but fertile of reflection, and is evidently a part of the work which the author had not completed. The manuscript, whence his executors have chiefly obtained their text, was drawn up in lectures for the instruction of private pupils; and references were inserted to portions of printed books, which were to be read as parts of each lecture, but which had not uniformly been abridged in the writer's own words. Hence many blanks of narrative remain, but no blanks of corollary: the philosophy of history is here, but not the entire chronicle: we have indeed the verdict of the author, but not all the documents of evidence which led him to pronounce it.

Volume II. consists of eight books; of which the first, numbered the eleventh, contemplates the fastening of the barbarous nations on the ruins of the Western Empire; a process which was going on from the year 450 to the year 600. The Ostrogoths, the Lombards, the Burgundians, the Allemanni, the Franks, the Visigoths, and the Anglo-Saxons, are severally traced to their respective independent settlements. — Book XII. treats of the rise of the Mohammedan religion, and of the establishment of the Arabian empire. This section contains much curious and recondite fact; especially concerning the civilization of Africa during the ascendancy of the Arabs. The thirteenth depicts the age of Charlemagne and of Harun al Rashid. The fourteenth pursues in great detail, and with unusual knowledge of the subject, the dismemberment of the Arabian empire, and the local establishment of subordinate independencies. ‘In architecture,’ says the author, p. 89., ‘the Arabs were the founders of that style which we term Gothic, because our ancestors became acquainted with it in Visigothic Spain.’

The fifteenth book contemplates the age in which the political influence of the papacy was established, and directs our attention to the state of Europe between 1070 and 1170. In the sixteenth, the same subject is pursued, and the progress of papal ascendancy is traced onwards to its highest pitch a little before the close of the thirteenth century. A sketch of northern Africa, which occurs in the twenty-first chapter, contrasts Mohammedan civilization with Christian barbarity at this period:

‘Sixteen years after his return from Palestine, Lewis IX. of France undertook a second crusade against the Abuhafidæ at Tunis.

‘Fifty years had not elapsed since the death of Abdelmumen, the chief of the Mowaheddin, who conquered the Morabeths, when the coast of Africa submitted to new sovereigns. Before the supreme power had fallen in this country into the hands of a soldiery who continually renewed their own numbers, the maintenance of authority depended always on the warlike and energetic talents of the founder of each dynasty, whose posterity soon slept in luxurious repose on their insecure throne. At Tunis, the house of Abuhaf Omar held now a short-lived sway: the Merinides ruled at Maroco, descendants of Abu Bekr, son of Abdul Hakk, son of Mahbu, son of Hamama. The former molested the navigators of the Mediterranean sea. Lewis defeated them, and laid siege to their capital, but his army was weakened by diseases, which brought the monarch himself to his grave. As it seemed neither an easy matter to conquer Tunis, nor probable that the possession of it could be maintained, the French commanders were contented with a treaty, by which it was agreed that the expences of the war should be paid, some monasteries erected, and a tri-

a tribute secured to Charles, the king of Sicily, brother of St. Lewis.

The Abuhafidæ and Merinides received no further molestation from the Europeans. Literature was honoured in their country: annually, at the birth-day of the great prophet, poets contended at Fez for the prize of the sublimest song; a fleet horse, a beautiful slave, an embroidered robe, and the precedence before all the bards of the same year. The land was populous, well cultivated, and gaily ornamented with cities and magnificent palaces.

Never had the Jews in the time of their dispersion boasted of so splendid a period of literature: here Averroës developed the genius of the most intelligent of their teachers, Rabbi Moses Ben-Maimon, who has illustrated their law with such luminous conception, and such an authoritative judgment, that he holds the highest rank among those who have exerted their faculties on it, since the time of the first Moses. His principles have continued to this day to govern the opinions of a great part of his nation, and have excited the admiration of philosophers.

The numberless heights and vallies of Daran, or Mount Atlas, became more and more occupied by pastoral tribes. The negro kingdoms beyond the sandy desert became known by the journies of caravans; camels traversed the pathless solitude; and wherever springs issued forth from the arid surface, pastoral stations were established. The courts of Africa were not only the granaries of southern Europe, but were also enriched by the export of cattle, cotton manufactures, tapestry, works of glass, and various kinds of honey and resin. These productions were conveyed from the warehouses of Algiers, Tolometta, Biserte, and from the great market of Alexandria. Al-Gazayari, which we call Algiers, was founded in this age. The towns were surrounded by beautiful gardens and meadows, and necessity had instructed the people in the method of irrigating them. For the rest, the cities of Africa abounded in every pleasure to which the climaté incited, and the law of Islam imposed few troublesome restraints.

Ceuta was fortified in the vicinity of the strait; further in the country, in the midst of villages and populous hamlets, on a river which gave movement to three thousand mills, arose Telemsan, and on the confines of the uninhabitable region, the Vandalic Odegast; but Tunis was most splendidly decorated, from the ruins of old Carthage, with the remains of Roman sculpture, and the works of the Aglabites, and other illustrious sultans and emirs. Flourishing towns were scattered in the ample plains of the Date-country, or Belad-al-jerid, through which shieks wandered in freedom with their hordes, who revered, in the sultan of Tunis or Maroco, their protector and supreme judge.

Such was northern Africa: its people were as brave as the ancient Carthaginians, and full of the inventive sagacity of Numidia. Every youth was instructed from his cradle in the use of arms: rocks, deserts, and ramparts secured their towns;

and the use of gunpowder was known to them long before Europe became acquainted with it. The chiefs lived on the produce of their lands; and public expenditures were provided for by tributes from the herds and other property.'

Book XVII. describes the gradual transition from the social order of the middle ages to that of modern times. An excellent survey of the state of European literature in those dim ages, when the twilight was just bright enough to awaken but not to satisfy curiosity, is contained in the thirty-third section. The eighteenth book treats of those revolutions which especially contributed to develop the modern order of political affairs, such as the conquest of Hindostan by the Portuguese, and the discovery of America by the Spaniards. With the revival of literature and the invention of printing, the new and better order of things began.

Vol. III. — The nineteenth book commences with a survey of the Protestant reformations in religion. A remarkable sketch is that which is given of the Jesuits in the following words :

' The original plan of the order of Jesus was simple, devout, and innocent: after the death of Ignatius Loyola, the author, it was improved first by Lainez, and afterwards by Aquaviva; men who were endued with the deepest knowledge of human nature, and immutably steadfast in pursuit of one main object. They deserve, indeed, to be considered as the founders of a society which will bear a comparison with the great institutions of the lawgivers of antiquity: like the latter, this system took entire possession of the will, and of all the faculties of the mind; like them it inspired its members with extraordinary activity, and infused a spirit of obedience so implicit, that the whole order resembled a healthy body, actuated by a vigorous soul. Whoever entered into the Society, renounced, as it were, his individual existence, and submitted himself, soul and body, to the General, as though *his* voice was actually that of Jesus Christ. He now stood in the relation of son and brother to the order, and abandoned all his former and social relations: he might accept offices, but not without the consent of the General, whose known will, even when not formally expressed, was to be his only law. The correspondence, and the learned undertakings of the whole order, were placed under the direction of this officer. It was forbidden to make any interpretations, objections, or conjectures, relating to his orders, or to any thing that he did or might do. Every individual was a Jesuit, and no longer a Spaniard, or a German, or a Frenchman; and no man was allowed to harbour a partial affection for any prince or any country. The constitution of the Jesuits, in some particulars, remained a secret: even the Pope was acquainted only with the spirit of their institution; and Paul the Third had allowed alterations

iterations to be made, without requiring to be informed in what they consisted.

The first fraternity was established by Claudius Aquaviva; and the order, in a short time, possessed congregations of both sexes in every country: here a secret was imparted to an individual: there a key to the house of prayer was given to another: all participated in the privilege of indulgence, and in the good works of the whole community. The order was divided into six assistances, and each of the latter into forty provinces; it possessed 538 colleges, and 22,500 publicly acknowledged members.

We will not investigate the merits of the Jesuits with regard to princes or to human nature, but their history proves that they understood the art of disseminating and of confirming certain ideas; that they possessed the means of elevating feeble individuals to the authority of lords of the earth and of its kings, and of placing them, as far as man can be raised, above the instability of fortune; and that they knew how to provide support for the future duration of their society. History records no institution, since the time of Pythagoras, which has been found capable, like this, of giving laws successfully to savages, to half-civilized men, and to nations in a very advanced stage of refinement. The Jesuits, without external splendour, had more influence in extensive kingdoms than any order had before possessed; and without being themselves monks, they exemplified whatever was worthy of imitation in the lives of the regular and secular clergy. It is said that they made a distinction between those despots who were also usurpers, and those who were tyrannical in the exercise of their legitimate authority; and that they held it lawful for any man to destroy the latter, while they only permitted the people to emancipate themselves from the yoke of the former. They are also accused of allowing breaches of morality of every kind, if it were for the advantage of the order: in reality, they were all things to all men; in Spain and in America they showed themselves to be masters of policy; in France they were men of great learning; and in the catholic parts of Germany, the patrons of prejudice.

Book XX. depicts the age of Philip the Second; and the twenty-first is occupied with the thirty years' war, of which we have lately spoken frequently and much at large. The ascendancy of France as an European power is the chief topic of the twenty-second book: of which the twenty-second section merits notice for its hostility to ecclesiastic usurpation. Maria-Theresa, Frederic, Joseph the Second and the literary heroes of Germany, are the objects of attention in the twenty-third. North-America and her revolution, Great Britain, and the relative situation of the European powers before the commencement of the French revolution, form the materials of the concluding chapter.

Of these three volumes we greatly prefer the second; which contains a comprehensive and admirable history of Europe in the middle age, derived from a careful and copious consultation of authorities little studied and not easily accessible. We think less highly of the antient history contained in the first volume, and of the modern history which forms the third volume; and we have little doubt that both these portions of the work would, if the author had lived, have received many alterations and some corrections. On the whole, however, this publication forms one of the best epitomes of Universal History that we know, and, in many respects, well deserves to be used as a book of education. The arrangement is luminous, the proportion of the parts is equitable, the diction is pregnant with thought, the general tenor of opinion and sentiment is unborrowed and is liberal, and a sincere love of probity and justice habitually influences the personal criticism. Its religious bias we have already stated. If M. Von Müller fell short of Mr. Planta in executing the history of Swisserland, he has certainly surpassed the Abbé Millot in drawing up his *Elements of General History*.—The original, whence this work is here well translated, appeared at Tübingen in 1811, and continues to maintain in Germany a high reputation.

ART. II. *Personal Narrative of Travels to the Equinoctial Regions on the New Continent*, during the Years 1799—1804, by Alexander de Humboldt, and Aimé Bonpland, with Maps, Plans, &c. Written in French by Alexander de Humboldt, and translated into English by Helen Maria Williams. Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 575. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

IN our lxxixth volume, we made our report of the preceding portions of M. de Humboldt's *Personal Narrative*; and the complaint then urged of the confusion in which the different subjects were involved, together with the total want of arrangement, may now be repeated with much propriety. The New Continent, indeed, which M. de H. presents to our notice, appears as if it were not yet risen from an indigested state; and the materials are so jumbled and broken, that they resemble truly the elements of the poetic chaos, the

“*Non bene junctarum discordia semina rerum.*”

We catch at times a vivid and distinct view of certain parts, but, before we can trace their connection, we are hurried through the air by a meteor, or plunged into the bottom of a volcano; and, at the moment when we are beginning

beginning to look around us, a sudden eruption throws us out of the crater to hear a long dissertation on the structure of languages, which is relieved by a second, equally long, on the structure of rocks. Hence we take our flight through the deep azure vault of heaven to measure the comparative light of the fixed stars, but instantly fall down on the earth, and find ourselves among the Indians of the missions or the *howling monkies* of the Cordilleras; and scarcely can we form an acquaintance with our new associates, before we are shaken by an earthquake, and required to hear another dissertation on the moral and physical effects of certain religious or political institutions, interspersed with copious reflections, on the nature of man. Altogether, then, M. de Humboldt may be said to exhibit a philosophical phantasmagoria: with which he amuses or instructs us by a rapid succession of images, which he causes to disappear or appear again without any natural connection.

If we mistake not, all this apparent artlessness is dependent on some concealed art. The author always preserves the imposing air of a man who could tell us much more of the mysteries of nature than he has leisure to reveal; and, indeed, so numerous are the objects that press on his attention, that he may almost be excused for leaving us abruptly at the very moment when we imagined ourselves conducted to the verge of some important discovery. He reminds us of Voltaire's Micromegas, who relates that the inhabitants of Saturn have seventy-two senses, which he begins to enumerate: but, after having stated *hearing, seeing, feeling, taste, and smell*, he adds that he cannot lose farther time in describing the remaining sixty-seven, and conveniently dismisses them with an *&c.* When M. Humboldt calls us to partake of an intellectual banquet, we give him due praise for the richness and variety of his fare: but, when he suddenly puts on a cover, and dismisses a dish from his table, it is not, we apprehend, to preserve the contents, for we suspect that he has already scraped the bottom with his spoon. Those who are well acquainted with his works will not accuse us of want of candour in these remarks: they are always pervaded by an affectation of universality and profundity: no department of learning or science is foreign to him, but he is at home and perfectly acquainted with them all: at least, such is the impression which he seems desirous of making on the mind of the reader. We are willing to do justice to the variety and extent of his knowledge; and, with some abatement for the
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affectation which we have mentioned, we think that few persons are equally qualified to visit and describe an entirely new country. We call the region into which he has penetrated in many respects *an entirely new world*: its mineralogy and geology had never before been examined and described by men of science, except a short account of one part given by Helms; and we knew little more of the composition and structure of its mountains than of the mountains in the moon, or in any of the planets. The philosophers who visited South America with Don Antonio de Ulloa were unacquainted with mineralogy; and the specimens of the mountains which they brought to Europe were neglected on their return, and entirely lost. Of this vast district, then, all our geological knowledge was confined to the enumeration of some of its principal volcanoes, and to the fact that it supplied Europe with a large quantity of gold and silver, with diamonds, and platina. No person could have been more happily selected than M. de H. for the examination of a country so extensively under the dominion of fire, and presenting the effects of internal convulsions on a scale of magnitude unknown on the old continent; and his delineations of external nature, when he traces the great outlines of physical geography, or depicts the grand scenes which the "lone majesty of untamed nature" presents to the traveller in the vast solitudes of South America, are always clear and impressive.

The present volume commences with an account of the author's visit to the missions of the Chayma Indians in the mountains of New Andalusia.

'At the beginning of the sixteenth century,' he observes, 'the unhappy Indians of the coasts of Carupano, of Macarapan, and of Caraccas, were treated in the same manner as the inhabitants of the coast of Guinea in our days. — The trade in the copper-coloured Indians was accompanied by the same acts of inhumanity as that in the African negroes, and had also the same result in rendering both the conquerors and the conquered more ferocious. Thence wars became more frequent among the natives, and prisoners were dragged from the inland countries to the coast, in order to be sold to the whites, who loaded them with chains in their ships. Yet the Spaniards were at this epocha, and long after, one of the most polished nations of Europe. — But wherever the thirst of wealth has introduced the abuse of power, the nations of Europe, at every period of their history, have displayed the same character.' — 'At length the missionaries, under the protection of the secular arm, spoke words of peace. It was the privilege of religion to console humanity for a part of the evils committed in its name, to plead the cause of the natives before kings;

kings, to resist the violence of the commandatories, and to assemble wandering tribes into small communities, which are called *Missions*, and the existence of which favours the improvement of agriculture. Thus were insensibly founded, though by a uniform and premeditated progress, those vast monastic establishments, that singular system, which continually tends to insulate itself, and places countries four or five times more extensive than France under the controul of religious orders.

'Institutions thus useful in stopping the effusion of blood, and in laying the first basis of society, have become in their result hostile to its progress. The effects of this insulated system have been such, that the Indians have remained in a state little different from that in which they existed when their scattered dwellings were not collected round the habitation of a missionary. Their number has considerably augmented, but the sphere of their ideas is not enlarged. They have progressively lost that vigour of character, and that natural vivacity, which in every state of society are the noble fruits of independence. By subjecting to invariable rules even the slightest actions of their domestic life, they have been rendered stupid by the effort to render them obedient.'

We are informed in a note that a certain number of habitations collected round a church, with a missionary monk performing the ministerial duties, is called in the Spanish colonies *Mision* or *Pueblo de Mision*. Indian villages governed by a priest are called *Pueblos de Doctrina*. The first mission which M. de H. visited appears to have been of the former description. The missionary was far advanced in age, but strong, healthy, and corpulent; 'seated, without doing any thing, the greater part of the day, in an arm-chair, he bitterly complained of what he called the indolence and ignorance of his countrymen.' The sight of the traveller's instruments and books drew from him a sarcastic smile, accompanied with a declaration that 'of all the enjoyments of life, without excepting sleep, none was comparable to the pleasure of eating good beef.' M. de H. flies off from his description of the mission to measure the height of a mountain; which is followed by an account of a man who suckled his child several months, with a dissertation on *male wet nurses*. — In the middle of the volume, we are told that among the Chaymas, in spite of the remonstrance of the monks, both men and women remain naked within their houses; and, when they traverse the village, they wear merely a kind of tunic of cotton which scarcely reaches to the knees. The girls are often married at the age of twelve, and until nine the missionaries allow them to go to church naked. Both men and women are very muscular, but fleshy and plump. M. de H. says that he saw no instances of deformity among
them

them, and that such cases are extremely rare in those nations that have the skin highly coloured. Old age is not so premature among the Chaymas as the common opinion in Europe would lead us to believe.

The traveller visited a remarkable cavern in this province, in the ravine of a mountain called Cuchivano, from which occasionally fire rushes out that may be seen at a great distance in the night, when the adjacent mountains are illuminated, and the flames appear to rise several hundred feet. This phenomenon was accompanied by a subterraneous, dull, and long continued noise, at the time of the last great earthquake of Cumana in 1812. It is observed chiefly during the rainy seasons; and the inhabitants say that the flames are become more frequent since 1797. The rocks which bound the ravine are calcareous; and the author thinks that they are similar to the Alpine lime-stone of Swisserland and the Tyrol: he saw no petrifications, but was informed that masses of shells are found at great heights. The lime-stone of Cuchivano contains beds of marly clay, three or four inches thick. The inference which he draws from these circumstances, to prove the identity of this lime-stone and the lime-stone of Thuringia (zetchotein), with the Alpine lime-stone of different countries, appears to us by no means conclusive, because similar beds of marly clay sometimes occur in every formation of lime-stone, except perhaps the primitive. These beds abound with pyrites and bituminous matter. — M. de H. proceeds to inquire into the cause of the flames that issue from this cavern, and observes: 'It would be easy to suppose (p. 83.) some connection between the waters filtering through the calcareous stone, and decomposed by pyrites, and the earthquakes of Cumana, the springs of sulphurated hydrogen in New Barcelona, the beds of native sulphur at Carupano, and the emanations of sulphurous acid, which are perceived at times in the Savannahs. It cannot be doubted, also, that the decomposition of water by the pyrites at an elevated temperature, favoured by the affinity of oxidated iron for earthy substances, may have caused that disengagement of hydrogen gas, to the action of which several modern geologists have attributed so much importance. But, in general, sulphurous acid is perceived more commonly in the eruption of volcanoes than hydrogen is; and it is principally the odour of this acid that prevails while the earth is agitated by violent shocks.'

Notwithstanding the author's reasoning, we think that the disengagement of sulphurated hydrogen, at a high temperature from the pyritous strata at Cuchivano, would account

in a satisfactory manner for the flames that issue from the cavern in rainy seasons : but we perfectly agree with him in the following reflections :

‘ When we take a general view of the phænomena of volcanoes and earthquakes, when we recollect the enormous distance at which the commotion is propagated below the basin of the sea, we readily lay aside explanations that are founded on small strata of pyrites and bituminous marls. I am of opinion, that the shocks so frequently felt in the province of Cumana are as little to be attributed to the rocks above the surface of the earth, as those which agitate the Appennines are to asphaltic veins, or springs of burning petroleum. The whole of these phænomena depend on more general, I would almost say, on *deeper* causes ; and it is not in the secondary strata which form the exterior crust of our globe, but in the primitive rocks, at an enormous distance from the soil, that we should place the focus of volcanic action. The greater progress we make in geology, the more we feel the insufficiency of theories founded on observations merely local.’

M. de H. afterward visited an immense cavern near the convent of Caripe, formed in mountain lime-stone, the length of which is 2800 feet. It preserves the same direction, the same breadth, and the height of 60 feet, to the distance of 1458 feet. This incident gives rise to a discussion on the formation of caverns, which he is inclined to attribute to the long-continued action of water ; except in volcanic rocks, in which he supposes caverns are formed by the disengagement of gases when the rocks are in a melted or softened state.

On the effects of negro-slavery at Cumana, the author offers some humane and judicious remarks. The mildness of the Spanish legislation, compared with the black code of most other nations, cannot be denied : but such is the state of the negroes, dispersed in places scarcely begun to be cultivated, that justice, far from efficaciously protecting them during their lives, cannot even punish acts of barbarity that have caused their death. The civil authority is powerless with respect to all that constitutes domestic slavery ; and nothing is more illusory than the effect so much vaunted of those laws, which prescribe the form of the whip and the number of lashes that it is permitted to inflict *at a time*. M. de H. says, ‘ persons who have not lived in the colonies believe that the interest of the master in the preservation of his slaves must render their condition so much the milder as their number is less considerable. Nevertheless, even at Cariaco, a few weeks before my arrival in the province, a planter who had only eight negroes killed six by beating them in the most barbarous manner. Such great crimes remain almost always unpunished ;

punished; the spirit that dictated the laws is not that which presides over their execution.'

M. Humboldt's narrative in the present volume is divided into two books, of which the first (numbered Book III.) occupied with his travels to the missions in New Andalusia and New Barcelona. The native primitive inhabitants constitute one half of the present scanty population, which is estimated at 120,000. The Indians of the province of Cumana, or New Andalusia, do not all live assembled in the missions, some being dispersed in the towns on the coasts, and a few in the little farms and savannahs. The missions of the Arragonese Capuchins contain 15,000 Indians, chiefly of the Chayma race. More to the west, in the missions of the Franciscans of Piritos, are Indian villages containing two or three thousand inhabitants. In the forests of South America are also native tribes, who are united peaceably in villages, and cultivate the plantain, cassava, and cotton, on an extensive scale, and employ the last in weaving hammocks. These people are scarcely more barbarous than the Indians of the missions. According to M. de H., more than 6,000,000 of the copper-coloured race of inhabitants still remain in both Americas; and their number between the tropics, he thinks, has considerably increased where civilization has penetrated, the missions being favourable to population. These missions, in process of time, become regular Spanish villages; the whites and casts of mixed blood establishing themselves among the Indians, and the natives losing the remembrance of their native idiom. Such, he says, is the progress of civilization from the coast to the interior; the missions also advancing farther west, and gaining on the natives. The remainder of the third book is occupied with a dissertation on the language and manners of these independent Indians, who are divided into numerous distinct tribes: one of which, the Guaraons, we are told, run with extreme address on muddy lands, where the whites, or the negroes, or any Indian, would not dare to walk. This power has been attributed to their being specifically lighter than the other natives, but M. de H. supposes that it is an act acquired by long habit.

Book IV. commences with the author's return to the town of Cumana, where he waited during a month to observe the eclipse of the sun, October 28. 1799. On the 4th of November, a severe shock of an earthquake was felt. The air during the previous day and night was almost stifling; the evening-breeze was not felt as usual; the atmosphere appeared as if it were on fire; and the ground was dry and cracked on every side. About two in the afternoon on the 4th, large clouds
of

of uncommon blackness enveloped the high mountains in the vicinity; about four, thunder was heard at an immense height, with a hoarse and often interrupted sound, but without rolling. At the moment of one of the strongest explosions, two shocks of an earthquake occurred, which followed at fifteen seconds from each other, in a direction from north to south. A few moments before the first shock, a violent blast of wind passed over, succeeded by electrical rain in great drops. The sky remained cloudy, with a dead calm, which lasted during the night: when a third shock took place, attended with a subterraneous noise. In the preceding shocks, explosions like those of gun-powder were heard, as if coming from the bottom of a well; by slaves who were drawing water at the time; which is a very common circumstance during earthquakes in South America. Twenty-two months before, the town of Cumana had been almost totally destroyed by an earthquake. The people consider the vapours that darken the horizon, and the failure of the breeze during the night, 'as prognostics infallibly disastrous.'

In November, after an earthquake, M. de Humboldt's fellow-traveller, M. Bonpland, had an opportunity of witnessing a series of the most remarkable atmospheric phenomena. On the 7th of that month, the disturbed atmosphere had returned to its former purity, and the vault of the sky near the zenith appeared of that deep blue tint which is peculiar to tropical climates. At half after two in the morning of the 12th, thousands of bolides (fire-balls) and falling stars succeeded each other during four hours. Their direction was very regular, from north to south; and they filled a space of sixty degrees in the sky, from 30° north to 30° south of the true east. The meteors were seen to rise above the horizon at E.N.E. and at E., to describe arcs more or less extended, and to fall towards the south, after having followed the direction of the meridian. Some of them attained the height of 40° , and all exceeded 25° or 30° . Very little wind was stirring in the low regions of the atmosphere, and it blew from the east. No trace of clouds was to be seen. From the beginning of the phenomenon, the observer could not perceive a space in the firmament equal in extent to three diameters of the moon, that was not filled at every instant with bolides and falling stars. The former were the fewer in number; and all left luminous traces, from five to ten degrees in length, which often happens in equinoctial regions. The phosphorescence of these traces lasted seven or eight seconds; and many of the falling stars had a very distinct nucleus, as large as the disk of Jupiter, from which darted

vivid sparks of light. The bolides seemed to burst, as if by explosion: but the largest were from one degree to one degree and a quarter in diameter, and disappeared without scintillation. The light of these meteors was white, and not reddish, which must in all probability be attributed to the absence of vapours and the extreme transparency of the air. The phænomenon ceased by degrees after four o'clock, and the bolides and falling stars became less frequent. In their journey from Caraccas to the Rio Negro, the travellers made inquiry at every place, whether the meteors of the 12th of November had been perceived; and in a savage country, where the greater number of the inhabitants sleep in the open air, so extraordinary a phænomenon could not fail to be remarked. They found that the Capuchin missionary at San Fernando de Apura, in latitude $7^{\circ} 53' 12''$, longitude $79^{\circ} 20'$, and the Franciscan monks near the cataracts of the Oroonoko and at Marao on the bank of the Negro, lat. $2^{\circ} 42'$, had seen numberless bolides and falling stars illumine the vault of heaven. Marao is distant 174 leagues south-west of Cumana. All these observers compared the phænomenon to a beautiful fire-work, which lasted from three till six o'clock in the morning. At the southern extremity of Spanish Guiana, at the little fort of San Carlos, M. de H. met with Portuguese missionaries, who assured him that it had been remarked in the Brazils as far as the equator, or over a line of 230 leagues in length: 'but what was my astonishment,' he says, 'when at my return to Europe I learnt that the same phænomenon had been perceived on an extent of the globe of 64° of latitude, and 91° of longitude, at the equator, in South America, at Labrador, and in Germany.' — The following is a succinct enumeration of facts. The fiery meteors were seen at 40° of elevation, from two o'clock till six, at Cumana, lat. $10^{\circ} 27' 52''$, long. $67^{\circ} 59'$. In French Guiana, lat. $4^{\circ} 56'$, long. $54^{\circ} 35'$, the northern part of the sky appeared all on fire; innumerable falling stars traversed the heavens during an hour and a half, and diffused a vivid light like sheaves from a fire-work. They were seen by the Count of Marbois, at that time in Cayenne. They were not observed south of the equator, Mr. Ellicot, astronomer to the United States, beheld the same phænomenon in the Gulph of Florida, lat. 25° , long. $81^{\circ} 30'$. The meteors seemed to move in all directions in every part of the sky; some appearing to fall perpendicularly, and it was expected that they would drop into the vessel. The same phænomenon was seen on the American continent, latitude $30^{\circ} 42'$. In Labrador, it was visible at Nain, latitude $56^{\circ} 55'$; at Hoffenthal, in latitude $58^{\circ} 4'$; in Greenland

at Lichtenau, lat. $61^{\circ} 5'$, and at New Herrenhut, lat. $64^{\circ} 14'$, long. $51^{\circ} 20'$. 'The Eskimoes were frightened at the enormous quantity of bolides that fell during twilight, towards all parts of the firmament, some of which were a foot broad.' What is still more remarkable, the same phænomenon was perceived in some parts of Europe. M. Zeessing, Vicar of Jitterstadt, near Weimar, lat. $50^{\circ} 59'$, long. $9^{\circ} 1'$, on the morning of the 12th of November, between the hours of six and seven, when it was half after two at Cumana, perceived some falling stars, which shed a very white light. 'Soon after, towards the south and south-west, luminous rays appeared from four to six feet long; they were reddish, and resembled the luminous track of a sky-rocket. During the morning twilight, between the hours of seven and eight, the south-west part of the sky was seen strongly illuminated by white lightning, which ran in serpentine lines along the horizon.'

As to the cause of these extraordinary appearances, M. de Humboldt, after having offered some general speculations on the height of falling stars, and the rarity of the upper regions of the atmosphere, does not presume to hazard any direct theory: but he seems inclined to believe that they were not the same meteors which were seen in the Brazils, at Cumana, and in Labrador. 'Scientific men,' he observes, 'who have made the most laborious researches on falling stars and their parallaxes, consider them as meteors belonging to the farthest limits of our atmosphere, between the region of the aurora borealis and that of the lightest clouds;' the elevation of which M. de H. estimates at 6000 toises above the level of the sea, from observations made on the ridge of the Andes at 2700 toises elevation. Some meteors, it is added, have been seen, which had not more than about five leagues of elevation; and the highest do not appear to exceed thirty leagues. They have often more than 100 feet diameter; and their swiftness is such, that they dart in a few seconds over a space of two leagues. Some of them have risen upwards, forming an angle of fifty degrees with the vertical line. 'This remarkable circumstance has led to the conclusion that falling stars are not aërolites, which, after having hovered a long time in space, take fire on entering accidentally into our atmosphere, and fall towards the earth.'

We confess that this conclusion of M. de Humboldt appears to us without any just foundation; for nothing can be more illusive than the apparent direction of these luminous meteors, which dart with such amazing velocity through the heavens. A meteor that in an instant flies from the zenith

of an observer to the horizon will appear to ~~fall~~ down in a perpendicular direction near to the place on which he stands; and, on the contrary, a meteor that suddenly darts from ~~the~~ horizon to the zenith will have the appearance of rising in a perpendicular line from the earth. The recent experiments on combustion, by Sir H. Davy, would lead to the conclusion that a dense and vivid light cannot be produced by the inflammation of highly rarified gaseous matter floating in the upper regions of the atmosphere; and hence it is inferred that aërolites, falling-stars, and fire-balls, are dense bodies, in a high state of ignition and incandescence; which were revolving in space, but took fire on entering the atmosphere of the earth from the access of oxygen or aqueous vapour. Various objections might be stated against this latter opinion: but it must be confessed that we are as yet profoundly ignorant respecting the origin of these bodies, and also of other atmospheric phenomena that more frequently occur. We conceive that there are properties of matter at present unknown, on which many of these phenomena depend; and we are at this day in the same state with respect to them, in which the philosophers of the 16th century were who attempted to explain the nature of lightning, before the properties of the electric fluid were discovered.

The latter part of the volume professes to contain a general view of the provinces of Venezuela: but it is chiefly filled with the author's observations and reflections on the political state of these provinces, which are rendered less interesting by the revolution that has recently shaken, if not overthrown, the long-established tyranny of the mother-country. Indeed, the remarks of different kinds, both physical and political, are so intermixed in this part of the work, that we confess ourselves unable to tell precisely what is the object of the traveller. A concise and general view of the population and resources of these provinces, together with the character of its variously coloured inhabitants, would have been particularly interesting at this period, when our attention is directed to the struggle of those colonies for their independence; and it is true that some valuable information of this kind may be gleaned from the work, if the reader will have the patience to select and arrange it. One passage we shall quote as being both concise and instructive:

‘Caraccas is the capital of a country which is nearly twice as large as Peru at present, and which yields little in extent to the kingdom of New Grenada. This country, which the Spanish government designates by the name of *Capitanía General de Caraccas*, or of the *United Provinces of Venezuela*, has nearly a million

million of inhabitants, among whom are sixty thousand slaves. It contains, along the coast, New Andalusia, or the province of Cumana, (with the island of Margareta,) Barcelona, Venezuela, or Caracas, Coro, and Maracaybo; the provinces of the interior are Varinas, along the rivers of Sante Domingo, and the Apure, and Guiana, along the Oroonoko, the Cassiquiare, the Atabapo, and the Rio Negro. In a general view of the seven united provinces of Terra Firma, we perceive that they form three distinct zones, extending from east to west.

We find at first cultivated land along the shore, and near the chain of the mountains on the coast; next, Savannahs or Pasturages, and finally, beyond the Oroonoko, a third zone, that of the forests, into which we can penetrate only by means of the rivers that traverse them. If the native inhabitants of the forests lived entirely on the produce of the chace, like those of the Missouri, we might say that the three zones, into which we have divided the territory of Venezuela, present an image of the three states of human society; the life of the wild hunter, in the woods of the Oroonoko; the pastoral life, in the savannahs; and the agricultural, in the high vallies, and at the foot of the mountains on the coast. Missionary monks and a few soldiers occupy here, as in all America, advanced posts on the frontiers of Brazil. In the first zone are felt the preponderance of force and the abuse of power, which is a necessary consequence. The natives carry on a civil war, and sometimes devour one another. The monks endeavour to augment the little villages of their missions, by availing themselves of the dissensions of the natives. The military live in a state of hostility with the monks, whom they were intended to protect. Every thing offers alike the melancholy picture of misery and privations. — In the second region, in the plains and the pasture-grounds, food is extremely abundant, but has little variety. Although more advanced in civilization, men without the circle of some scattered towns do not remain less isolated from one another. At the view of their dwellings, partly covered with skins and leather, it would seem that, far from being fixed, they are scarcely encamped in those vast meadows, which extend to the horizon. Agriculture, which alone lays the basis and draws closer the ties of society, occupies the third zone, the shore, and especially the hot and temperate vallies in the mountains near the sea.

In a short supplement, M. de Humboldt corrects some errors into which he had fallen in the former volumes, when describing Teneriffe and the Canary Islands; for most of which amendments he is indebted to M. Von Buch, who has subsequently visited those regions. One correction created in us much surprise. Those who have read the account of M. de H.'s visit to the crater of Teneriffe may recollect his description of a steep circular well of lava, which prevents the entrance on the northern and western side: but he now informs.

informs us that 'no such steep circular well exists, and that his remarks on it, and the analogy between it and the well surrounding the crater of Cotopaxi, do not appear to be accurate.' Now, as M. de H. spent nearly a day in and about this crater, which is very small and shallow, (much less than that of Vesuvius,) and not filled with smoke or vapour, and is also perfectly quiescent, it seems to us most extraordinary that he could imagine that he saw a high well surrounding the rim when no such well really existed. The crater of Teneriffe is less in extent of surface than Bedford Square in London; and what should we think of the accuracy of the traveller who had passed a day in the square on purpose to describe it, and should not be able to tell us truly whether it was inclosed by houses on every side, or not? The well round the crater of Cotopaxi, on which M. de H. bestows several pages of speculation, is inaccessible, and was seen only at some miles' distance, through a telescope. We may therefore be fairly permitted to doubt the real existence of this well also, and thus get clear of the difficulty in accounting for its formation.

We trust that the ignorant jealousy and barbarous policy, which prevented the free access of enlightened travellers to the Spanish colonies in America, will be succeeded by an entire change of policy in the new governments that may be established; and we hope that the whole of that vast continent will speedily be explored by numerous able naturalists, who may examine at leisure and in detail the various interesting objects with which the different provinces abound. The writings of M. de Humboldt are rather calculated to excite than to satisfy our curiosity: but we are greatly indebted to him for the new and interesting information which he has afforded.

This volume contains maps of the course of the river Meta, of a part of the course of the river Oroonoko, and a part of the province of Varinas: a section or geological view of the volcano of Jorullo; and a plate representing the lower limit of perpetual snow in different latitudes.

Vol. IV. has just made its appearance.

ART. III. *The Friends: A Poem, in Four Books.* By the Reverend Francis Hodgson, A.M. Vicar of Bakewell, Author of a Translation of Juvenal, and of Twelve Books of Charlemagne, &c. &c. Crown 8vo. pp. 189. 7s. Boards. Murray. 1818.

WE have had occasion, in some of our preceding numbers, to give our opinion of the former productions of this gentleman *, and to express our respect for his very considerable talents and attainments. We observed at the same time that the fault of equableness and unimpressiveness was occasionally chargeable on his compositions; and we think that it is discernible in the poem before us: which does not present favourite points, where the author seems to have been animated with the subject, and where the reader will find himself carried away by kindred enthusiasm, but in which every part is wrought to a certain artificial pitch, and the writer is as intent on giving an earnest description of salt-works or coal-mines as of the falls of Niagara or the battle of Quebec.

The story is very simple: two friends, Ferdinand and Theodore, reside together in Wales; the former of whom, an orphan, is persuaded by the late Marquis of Granby to enter into the army, goes over with his comrades to America, and is there unfortunately seized by a body of Indians. Theodore remains with his father in Wales: but, on the death of his parent, he visits Devonshire, and there falls in love with a lady whom he meets at the house of his relatives. He takes holy orders, and a day is fixed for the wedding, when news arrives of his friend's capture by the Indians. In the most disinterested manner, he determines on seeking him, crosses the Atlantic, and arrives very *à-propos* for Ferdinand's rescue, when he was on the point of being immolated. They then set out together for England, but perish by shipwreck on the coast of Ireland. — The narrative is interspersed with various descriptions of scenery in Wales, in Devonshire, and in America; with many comments on the quiet current of retired life; and with many reflections both on the state of the church and on the history of English literature. The time of the story is supposed to be early in the last century, and the hero Ferdinand was present and active in the battle of Quebec: but the author does not scruple to advert to subjects of more recent interest, which

* For the review of his Translation of Juvenal, see M. R. Vol. lv. p. 246. ; and of Lady Jane Grey and Sir Edgar, Vol. lxii. p. 363.

will be seen from the following remarks on Lord Byron's productions, as tending to inspire a recklessness and a contempt of all obligation that must be unfavourable to morality and happiness; remarks which display much energy, and, we fear, some justice. Having animadverted very severely on the tendency of several popular French and German works, Mr. Hodgson proceeds thus :

' A subtler danger still awaits thy race,
My injured country! this revolting shame
Ne'er can pollute thee long — but oh! efface
The deeper, direr stain that blots thy name —
Nature shall wake, and cast the slough she wore,
And hate the recreant limbs that such vile covering bore :

' But Nature long may love, and cherish still
Her own ideal vigour; and disdain
Submission meet to his Almighty will
Who marks alone the bounds of Virtue's reign :
Then how shall she, the Moral Muse, atone
For fixing wretched Man on motives all his own?

' How shall the youthful crowds, who pleased admire
The glowing picture, and the varied tale,
Approach false Virtue's self-supported fire,
And no hot breath of poisonous pride inhale?
And where was warning Truth when Pride bereft
The world of Heavenly light, and still its shadow left?

' Virtue is Heaven's faint shadow, thrown on earth
(Where contrast makes it brilliant) for a guide
To wandering man — but varying in its worth,
As Heaven still lights, or leaves it dark with pride:
And, for its full reward, that ne'er is given,
Though earth may yield a part, till Virtue end in Heaven.

' And is not ardent genius brightly their's,
Those wild and wandering comets? is not sense
Keen and profound, that no weak warmth impairs,
That Moral Muse's birthright? — vain defence!
Why lead those stars to darkness? why destroys
That maimed imperfect lore our best and safest joys?

The parting of Theodore and Ellen is extremely well described :

' Pale, as in death, before him Ellen stands —
Speechless they rush to share the wild embrace —
The only name she heard was Ferdinand's,
The only sight she saw that woe-worn face —
"And is it thus, at last, we meet?" she said —
And mute on Sorrow's neck hung Beauty's lifeless head.

'O'ercome

- ‘ O’ercome at first, nor able to sustain
 Those awful tidings of his purposed way
 Across the billows of the boundless main ;
 Perchance to Danger’s rude and fierce array,
 Sweet maid, thy strength has failed — and, caught from
 thee,
 Contagious weakness shakes the friend’s fidelity.
- ‘ Her noble eye has marked it — and disdain,
 To think her distant blood should want the force
 Of his director lineage, in each vein
 Stirs keen Resolve ; and lifts that current’s course
 To female Fortitude’s high pitch, that man
 Ascend it though he may, surmount it never can.
- ‘ All is subdued at once of softer love —
 Her lover’s honour, mingled with her own,
 Would almost urge her voice to bid him rove
 At friendship’s thrilling call o’er wilds unknown —
 Had not himself been steeled, and fixed to find
 In Duty’s brave discharge the stay of Virtue’s mind.
- ‘ They strengthen thus each other for their doom —
 And o’er their pallid features past a light,
 Like spectral radiance on some forest tomb
 Poured by the struggling moon through shades of night —
 Freed from this world, yet lingering on its bound
 They seemed — and sighing still for Love’s enchanted
 ground.
- ‘ “ Ellen, farewell ! the God of Mercy shield
 My guileless Ellen ! — oh, if Heaven decree
 These bones to rest in Danger’s distant field —
 Weep not, sweet love ! — that Heaven shall comfort thee —
 For well thou knowest, where’er the body lies,
 The soul shall meet again its kindred in the skies.
- ‘ “ There shall we meet, my Ellen ! — why despair
 Of earlier union here ? — ah say not, ‘ No ! ’ —
 The faithful heart is God’s peculiar care —
 And where can God himself his favour show
 To heart more true than thine ? nay, doubt him not —
 He scourges whom he loves — we share his favourite’s lot.
- ‘ “ Think, when returning, with my rescued friend,
 I touch the crags of Albion’s chalky shore ;
 Think, as o’er sunny vales to thee I bend,
 And claim thy hand for happy Theodore ;
 What heightened joy that rescued friend shall give,
 And how our peaceful home shall guard him — if he live ! ”
- ‘ “ And is he gone, for ever gone ? ” — oh where
 Is courage now, and where is female pride ?
 Down sinks the whole lost heart in blank despair,
 And even her honoured kinsman at her side

Offers a fruitless comfort — haste, ye hours!
Crushed Virtue, shed thy balm from Sorrow's fragrant
flowers.'

We select the lines that convey Theodore's moonlight-contemplations, as favourable specimens of the lighter songs with which the poem is occasionally diversified :

' How smoothly o'er the moonlight lake
The wings of Silence sweep!
Sorrow and Rage the world forsake,
And all but Love's asleep.

' And well may blameless Love conspire
With calm Devotion's trance,
To gaze, to ponder, and admire
Beneath yon blue expanse.

' The placid concave of the sky,
Reflected in the flood,
Presents a realm to Fancy's eye,
Prepared to bless the good.

' No tumult floats in that pure air,
No cloud o'ercasts the breast :
" The wicked cease from troubling there,
The weary are at rest."

' Divided once by envious Time,
Stars to one sphere confined,
There sages meet from every clime,
And share the gifted mind.

' There Science darts collected light —
While, freed from progress slow,
Virtue advances to the height
She viewed in vain below.

' There patriots find that gentle reign
They sought in dreams on earth ;
Attracting, with a viewless chain,
Free love to ruling worth.

' There every heart, that met in life
Its own reflected form —
Nor vexed by care's unworthy strife,
Nor tost by passion's storm —

' In union with that kindred heart,
Finds a blest home above —
" No trial there shall bid us part,
My Ellen, oh my love!"

Mr. Hodgson's description of General Wolfe has perhaps more of effect than any part of the poem ; and therefore, though the quotation be rather extensive, we shall venture on it :

' But

- ' But oh! what mingling flames of passion burn
 In him, the leader of the luckless fight,
 The noble Wolfe? his soul consumes his frame
 With Valour's wounded pride, with Virtue's conscious shame.
- ' Alone at midnight in his tent he sits,
 Revolving all the records of disgrace —
 How Fortune's children rise and sink by fits
 From Honour's highest to her lowest place:
 How Greece repaid her sons; how mighty Rome;
 And how Success alone still swayed his ardent home.
- ' Amid the generous band, unduly viewed
 By blinded mobs, or (still severer doom!)
 By rival faction's ruthless hate pursued;
 Amid the forms that filled the pictured gloom
 Of ages present, past, or yet to be,
 One mangled shape he saw (oh foul indignity!)
- ' And turned, much-injured Byng! in hot disdain
 From the dire sight — "On thee, my native land!"
 Thus flowed the hero's thoughts — "no blushing stain
 Of cruel outcry, of insane demand
 For miscalled justice, shall thy son impress —
 Victory or Death his aim thy millions shall confess."
- ' High on her marble throne o'er confluent tides
 Of subject waters, girt with mighty woods,
 Sits fair Quebec: but where yon Navy rides,
 The ceaseless thunders, echoing o'er the floods,
 Strike her crushed towers, and half with ruins spread
 The proud Canadian sovereign bows her head.
- ' Yet undismayed, unshaken yet by war,
 Her crown of rocks above the combat shines;
 And hurls aerial vengeance from afar
 On dauntless England's disappointed lines:
 But vain her hottest rage those sails to check
 That mount, through fiery death, beyond alarmed Quebec.
- ' The silent shade enwraps St. Lawrence' wave;
 The boats glide stilly down the guarded stream —
 "Who passes there?" the answers of the brave
 Like answering France in sudden quickness seem —
 They pass! Oh Hope! on England's leader now
 Thy new-born sunbeam pours, and lights his faded brow.
- ' They land — that feeble form, that sunken eye,
 Has seized a giant's nerves, a martyr's smile —
 Forgotten all but England's triumph nigh,
 Where are the doubts, the griefs he felt awhile?
 Oh beat, ye hearts of fire, with answering sound,
 When fair on Abraham's heights the flag of Wolfe unwound!

On,

- ' On, on, ye rival race, ye dauntless isles,
 On, on! the slippery shore, the craggy hill,
 The loose ascent, the wooded deep defiles
 Are past — the heights are plain — before you still
 What but your foe? Oh charge! and all is gone,
 Quick as the clouds of Night, when Day's first star has shone.
- ' Yet gallantly your foe begins the fight —
 And oh! what gathering crowd at once appears
 At yonder point? why, in the conquering right,
 One instant pause those forward cavaliers?
 His hand has prest his heart — their leader falls,
 And faintly to the charge with dying accent calls.
- ' But France has fled, and thou hast heard her shame,
 Thou matchless flower of Valour's youthful race!
 What worthy numbers can embalm thy name,
 Thine! that no unborn champion shall displace
 From Glory's loftiest fane, where shrined thou art
 'Mid England's offspring of the lion-heart.
- ' Yet, ere thy spirit to its home retire,
 That sun-lit home where parted patriots rest,
 Mark how thine orphan host, with doubled fire,
 Seeming at once with thy brave soul possest,
 Rush on the foe, where yet he feebly stands,
 And chase to pale Quebec his scattered bands.
- ' High o'er Canadian towers thy colours wave!
 Blest shade, farewell! —'

Had we space for additional extracts, we do not think that we should lessen the curiosity of our readers to see the poem itself if we copied the account of the shipwreck, with which it concludes: but we must refrain, and close these few remarks with expressing our high approbation of the spirit of fervent piety and pure morality which pervades the whole of Mr. Hodgson's composition.

ART. IV. *Childe Harold's Monitor*; or Lines occasioned by the last Canto of *Childe Harold*, including Hints to other Contemporaries. 8vo. pp. 97. 5s. 6d. sewed. Porter. 1818.

IT must, we think, be admitted that this production displays much spirit, sound sense, and judicious criticism. The writer would willingly withdraw his contemporaries from their attachment to conceits and extravagances, and induce them to fix their attention on classic models. We quote with great pleasure his lines on Precision:

- ' Then let Precision, like the noonday sun
 Each image mark, and paint them one by one

With

With Judgment's clear, with Fancy's changeful hues,
The flash of Wit, the rainbow of the Muse.
Learning o'er all her hallowed light shall shed,
And living bards recall the tuneful dead.
— Nor shall one note in that harmonious choir
Discordant crash, to scandalize the lyre —
Though every part betrays contrasted charms,
Or dies in love, or swells in war's alarms;
Still o'er the contrast music breathes her soul,
Varying adapts, dividing blends the whole.
Thus, through Creation's complicated frame,
One spirit moves, in every change the same;
Forms the mute mass, inspires the pulse of life,
Links worlds to worlds in bonds of loving strife;
By differing paths reclaims its first abode,
Pervades fair Nature, and is lost in God.

' Yet have we Judges, Gothic as our Bards,
These by rude numbers, those by false awards,
Who scoff at Taste, who deem Discretion cold,
Applaud the Muse extravagantly bold;
From beauteous Order turn unmoved away,
And call for grand Chæotic disarray.
As well might Chæos with Creation vie,
Or Man himself be matched with Deity;
As such unfinished embryos of the brain
With the formed product of that ancient strain;
As the stray sweetness of a chance-born line,
With music breathing through some vast design;
Where each pure part blends softly in the whole,
Beauty the frame, and glowing Sense the soul.'

Perhaps the author is somewhat more severe on Cowper than every reader of that amiable and unfortunate poet will approve: but we have ourselves so frequently expressed our objections to his writings, that we can scarcely differ from this brother-critic. We are glad to find him coming forwards in vindication of Horace; and his complimentary verses and remarks on Goldsmith are peculiarly just and happy:

' Can Goldsmith, tenderest child of Nature's race,
Who casts a mellow light, a dying grace
O'er rural solitudes, and haunted groves,
Where manhood weeps for youth's deserted loves —
Can he, who lent Simplicity a spell,
That, haply echoed from the Cean shell *,

But,

* * Simonides. — Whether the resemblance between the fragments of this author, or, rather, between the character attributed to him by ancient fame, and the elegant simplicity of Goldsmith (who is sometimes *mæstior lacrymis Simonides*) be fanciful or not, what

But, wafted down the o'erwhelming tide of time,
 Sounds in fleet murmurs to our distant clime;
 Can he, who marked the impassable domain,
 Where Nature leaves, and folly finds the strain —
 Can Goldsmith, Harold! cease to charm thy soul?

In several passages, however, of this *Monitor*, we find ourselves inclined to concur in the criticism without admiring the poetry; and the subsequent lines may shew that the author, with the intention of being plain and bold, has incurred the danger of degenerating into something like coarseness:

‘ But Southey! Wordsworth! — are they verse, or prose?
 “ *It is not every one that fact who knows* ” —
 So might themselves have sung, that gentle pair!
 Alike in stature, different but in air:
 And who, on earth, for such a difference cares?
 Heaven fixed their height — they gave themselves their *airs*.’

Perhaps the same objection will be urged against parts of the writer's very just criticism on the French and German school, and their imitators:

‘ When France, convulsive, set the world on fire,
 Thrones, altars, fell — and what could save the lyre?
 New thoughts, licentious, swept all bounds away,
 And in one chaos life and learning lay.
 Then monster-breeding Germany, who caught
 Her neighbour's plague with vaccinated thought,
 Calved a dire race, the suicide, the sage,
 And the foul hydras of dramatic rage.
 — When mind so sickened, how could language thrive?
 The wonder's here — that *style* should yet survive.
 Then England's rhymesters, with infected brains,
 Sang vulgar heroes in congenial strains;
 A Marten's fate inspired the people's phrase,
 And Tyler asked the Billingsgate of praise.
 Unhappy Tyler! — thou hast lost thy bard —
 And laurels yield the Apostate's due reward.
 Oh! that the sack, which dulcifies his Muse,
 Would dress her too in Fancy's figured hues:

what follows, must, it is thought, be allowed to be true; — that every attempt, subsequent to the writings of Goldsmith, to increase and to improve upon his simplicity, has degenerated from that pure and classical quality in his style, into mere childishness and imbecility. It has not been a rational plainness — *illa priorum simplicitas* — but the prattle of “ Alice Feli,” or the “ Hush a by, baby, by!” or the “ Up, up, my lad!” of her worthy associates. — See the “ Lyrical Ballads.”

Make

Make his blank essays verses, and transmute
The drone of Marsyas to Apollo's lute.

‘ But whence, in bolder England, *could* arise
This prosing tameness, fit for German skies?
Klopstock! thou leader of the droning band,
Thou drowsy bee that humm’st o’er Judah’s land;
Whose heavy note, half snored, and hardly sung,
Cloyed with the sweets, without the sting of Young *,
Bursts in bombastic pop-guns, now and then —
To thee, in part, we owe our foolscap men.

— But nor the heightening screams, nor closing groans,
The hubbub wild of Jacobinic tones,
That burst o’er Europe in a cloudy maze,
Blood and blank verse, and politics and plays;
Not all these horrors of the Rhine and Rhone
Stained England’s Muse — her ruin was her own.
Palely she drooped, in melody’s decline,
From Cowper’s loose to Southey’s looser line;
Till Wordsworth dared on Keswick’s banks to plant
The verse of Klopstock with the sense of Kant.†

The remarks of this ‘Monitor’ are so sensible that, whenever he supports his dignity, he commands our respect; but he has tendencies to witticism which he sometimes indulges, although sprightliness does not seem to be peculiarly his *forte*.

So great a similarity prevails between the remarks and the sentiments in this pamphlet, and those of the poem mentioned in the preceding article, that we should be inclined to ascribe both productions to the same pen.

* Young was the favourite English author of Klopstock. *Hinc illæ lacrymæ*. Hence his gloomy sentimentalism, heightened or rather lowered, by an inordinate infusion of German wearisomeness. But the Englishman constantly dazzles his reader with a sort of dark-lantern flash, illuminating the church-yard in which he abides. Not so the German: — his is a solid substantial dullness, that you might eat with a spoon. His well-known designation of thunder as the “ten thousand pounder of the Almighty,” is the perfection of the heavy, arithmetical sublime.

† The former of these worthies bears about the same relation to the genuine poet, that the latter does to the true philosopher. Mysticism, or rather mystification, seems to be the leading principle in both. Had they been Englishmen, instead of Kant and Klopstock, they would infallibly have been denominated Hoax and Humbug.

‘ It need not be added, how exquisitely combined both these characters appear, in the poetical person of Mr. Wordsworth. *Ridiculum acri fortius ac melius plerumque!* — and the unknown author of the “Poetical Mirror” has done more justice, and more honour to Mr. W. (especially in the “Flying Tailor”) than was ever rendered before.’

ART. V. *Transactions of the Geological Society*, established November 13, 1807. Vol. IV. Part II. 4to. pp. 360. 3l. 3s. Boards. W. Philips.

ON resuming our notice of these Transactions from the lxxxivth volume of the M. R. (N. S.), our attention is first drawn to *Observations on the Mountain Cruachan, in Argyleshire, with some Remarks on the surrounding Country.* By J. Mac Culloch, M.D. F.L.S. President, &c. — It had been vaguely announced by some mineralogical travellers, that the basis of this highland-mountain consists of syenite: but Dr. Mac Culloch very properly observes, that the distinction between that substance and granite is rather accidental than essential, or geological, depending entirely on the occasional presence of hornblende. Another simplification of the nomenclature, adopted by this ingenious writer, is the identity of compact felspar and horn-stone: but the most interesting portion of his present communication refers to the partial occurrence of red sand-stone, and of a calcareous grit in a primitive district; and to the exhibition of porphyritic and trapp veins in schistus and granite. The former cannot be conveniently traced to any considerable extent; but the latter is at once visible and striking:

‘ These veins are of different sizes as well as aspects, varying from the breadth of three or four feet to that of fifty, or more. they are all very erect, and in a general view appear perpendicular. They traverse both the schist and the granite, and are to be observed in this part of the hill cutting the vein equally with the schist in all directions. They are uniformly well defined, neither intermixing in any respect with the granite nor with the schist, nor apparently producing any disturbance in the course or direction of these rocks. They are, as I before remarked, of various colours and compositions, and two veins may often be seen running parallel and in absolute contact with each other, without interference or disturbance, the one of a dark red, and the other of a light grey or some other colour. They are so numerous that perhaps a fortieth or fiftieth part of that region of Cruachan which I examined consists of porphyry veins. The principal varieties both of colour and composition which I remarked are the following, and their basis consists of that rock which is now by general consent called compact felspar, but which has at times been designated by the term horn-stone.

‘ Brick red porphyry, the base of compact felspar with imbedded crystals of the same colour: a very few specks of white felspar and of greenish hornblende are dispersed through it.

‘ A mixed granular basis of reddish grey compact felspar with crystals of a larger size and paler colour, containing also grains of pyrites and long slender crystals of hornblende in abundance.

Base

‘ Base of an uniform dark grey compact felspar with crystals of white felspar.

‘ The same, but with the addition of black mica, hornblende, and pyrites.

‘ A grey ground with very large crystals of pale grey felspar; these crystals themselves containing crystals of hornblende. The base contains crystallized mica:—a purple ground with crystals of brownish yellow felspar:—a brown uniform ground, with rare and minute crystals of felspar:—a similar greyish basis with dispersed crystals of hornblende only:—a basis of hornblende with distinct crystals of felspar; of a porphyritic character;—and an uniform mixture of hornblende and felspar, approaching to common green-stone, and at length not to be distinguished from it.

‘ These latter varieties appear to form a regular series of a transition from porphyry to trap, of which I shall immediately speak: first remarking that besides these leading varieties which I have now described, there are many others which it would be superfluous to notice; as the variations of colour, aspect, and composition are endless. Together with the veins of decided porphyry, various parts of the mountain are intersected by veins of grey rock, having, as I have just remarked, the general character of the trap rocks, and sometimes porphyritic. Veins of perfectly characterized basalt also occur in some places, and these, or fragments of them, may in particular be observed in great quantity strewing the top of the first summit, (that one which is marked by two cairns,) and laying fair claim to an equal antiquity with the veins of porphyry. It is easy to procure detached specimens of the junction between the granite and basalt in great variety and abundance. The line of junction is in all cases clear and well defined, but does not admit of ready separation even after long exposure to weather.’

The masses, both of the porphyritic veins and of the granite at the summit of Cruachan, affect the magnet; and the same circumstance has been observed with respect to the granite at the top of Goatfield, in Arran.

Dr. Mac Culloch’s speculations relative to the geology of the surrounding country, though in some cases conjectural, yet, when combined with his former observations on some of the highland-districts, manifest much plausibility and more than an ordinary closeness of reasoning.

Account of some remarkable Disturbances in the Veins of the Mine called Huel Peever, in Cornwall. By John Williams, jun. Esq.—The anomalies here specified are sufficiently worthy of the distinct exposition which Mr. Williams has laid before the Society, but which, nevertheless, cannot be easily apprehended without reference to the accompanying section of the workings. It is of consequence, however, to

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remark that the irregularities of most of the Cornish mines are neither few nor readily reducible to general statements.

Description of the Tunnel of the Tavistock Canal, through Morwel Down, in the County of Devon. By John Taylor, Esq.

— The mining operation, which gave rise to this short but interesting paper, appears to have been very skilfully completed in the course of thirteen years, and to have effected a subterraneous passage of 1270 fathoms, revealing some curious and profitable facts. The excavated rock, though mostly composed of killas, is traversed by beds of other materials, such as quartz and porphyry, of which the direction is inclined to that of the metalliferous veins. The latter traverse all the strata, dipping to the north or south on these respective sides of the hill. — One of these *lodes*, which has been worked about 60 fathoms deep, under the level of the tunnel, has produced between 8000 and 9000 tons of copper-ore; and from others large quantities of the same substance have been extracted.

Corrections and Additions to the Sketch of the Mineralogy of Sky, published in the Third Volume of the Transactions of the Geological Society. By J. Mac Culloch, M.D., &c. &c.

— This supplementary communication, which extends to a considerable length, reflects equal credit on the discernment and the candour of its author; and, when taken in connection with the original document to which it refers, it will convey to the curious geologist a masterly view of various phenomena not easily reconcileable to the ordinary and dogmatical generalizations of the framers of systems. We cannot presume, however, even to enumerate the many important modifications of the prior statements with which we are here presented. Among the more insulated remarks, we may notice the inutility of attempting to procure any ultimate advantage from the trifling indications of coal which have been observed in Sky; the occurrence of small quantities of the red oxyd of manganese in white marble, and in steatite; or distinct exhibitions of laumonite, and of augite, and hyperstene rocks, which are too often confounded with greenstone.

‘ With respect to the trap itself, it is most generally amorphous. As we approach however towards the northern end of the promontory it becomes columnar, and this character prevails round the points of Aird and Hunish beyond Duntulm, where it at length terminates. Although the columns are formed on a large scale, and are individually rude and imperfectly defined, yet their picturesque effect, when seen from a point of view where they can be properly comprehended as a whole, is not less symmetrical than

Crystals, is uniformly guided by the laws of strict geometrical precision.

Supplementary Observations on Quartz-Rock, made in 1814.
By J. Mac Culloch, M. D., &c. &c. — These additional observations farther illustrate the extensive scale on which quartz-rock occurs in the Highlands of Scotland, its gradual transition into granite, the contortions to which it has been occasionally subjected, its alliance with the secondary sand-stones, and its various modifications, particularly that which is denominated *aventurine*.

‘ A fact of some importance is visible at Loch Ericht which I will mention here, although not particularly connected with the history of quartz-rock. About half way between the top and bottom of the lake on the south-side, a large slide of the mountain is to be seen; the ruin is still so entire, of such magnitude, and so little encumbered with recent accumulations of soil, that there is no difficulty in tracing the fallen masses to the broken summits whence they were detached. The quartz-rock here, as in all the outskirts of this granitic country, is traversed by granite veins. A few fallen stones have formed a sort of cave capable of containing three or four persons, and known to the neighbouring shepherds, who, still mindful of their ancient allegiance, show the spot where, among many others, the unfortunate Prince Charles was for a time concealed. The minuter fragments of quartz-rock and granite have here formed themselves into angular conglomerates, which are in some instances perfectly compact, the smaller cavities having been filled up by siliceous matter, while the larger fragments, touching only by small surfaces, have left considerable openings between them. Here then we have an example of a breccia formed in times comparatively recent. The conglomeration of the fragments is not the effect of the accidental presence of iron, so commonly the cement of modern breccias, but is evidently the result of a deposition of siliceous matter. This could only have been brought into solution by the rains, or by the operation of common water, since the stones are out of the reach of other causes; and it serves to prove that the solution of silica in water, a circumstance which some have supposed limited to the ancient state of the globe, is a process still going on. I have indeed noticed, in the former remarks on quartz-rock, the same fact as proved by the enamelled and polished surface which its exposed parts so often assume. We have no means from historical record of determining the antiquity of this *slide*, but as far as any conjectural evidence can be adduced from the little accumulation of soil which has formed on the horizontal surfaces, and the bare aspect of the faces, on which scarcely a lichen has yet planted itself, it cannot be of very high antiquity. The observation is further of importance as illustrating the origin of the brecciated jaspers, as well as that of the other breccias formed of angular fragments.’

Description of a Series of Specimens from the plastic Clay near Reading, Berks: with Observations on the Formation to which those Beds belong. By the Rev. William Buckland, Professor of Mineralogy in the University of Oxford. — From the various indications and analogies here brought forwards, we are led to infer that the plastic clay is not only a formation of great extent, pervading certain portions both of France and England, but is composed of an indefinite number of beds of sand, clay, and pebble, alternating irregularly. The fossil-remains in the beds of this formation are in like manner irregularly disposed, being sometimes found in the clay, sometimes in the sand or pebbles, and being very frequently wanting.

On some Beds of Shell-Marl in Scotland. By Henry Warburton, Esq. — These depositions of shell-marl are found in certain districts of the counties of Forfar, Fife, Perth, Ross, and Berwick. They consist mostly of *helix putris*, of Pennant, but fragments of *mytilus cygneus*, *cardium amicum*, &c. also occur. The beds chiefly occupy hollows under the moss in portions of the red sand-stone formation, and appear to have accumulated in fresh-water lakes, as they continue to do at the present day.

‘The calcareous beds thus formed are, it is true, on a small scale, when compared with those of the Paris or Hampshire basins. Yet, contrasting the insignificance of these little testaceous animals with the space occupied by their exuviae, which at Lundie, for instance, is many feet deep, and covers an area of seventy acres, the extent of their beds is surprising. The siliceous beds, indeed, and the porcelainic lime-stone of the Paris basin are wanting to this recent formation, and are still problems for geologists to solve; but in respect of the quantity of shelly matter the analogy is perfect, and the imagination can readily seize the effects produced in a warm and prolific climate with animals of decuple dimensions, and with a liberal allowance of time.’

Geological Remarks on the Vicinity of Mæstricht. By the Rev. W. E. Hony. — This short but distinct notice brings us acquainted with the structure of the celebrated hill of St. Peter, an insulated ridge, extending for nearly three leagues, with precipitous sides and subterraneous quarries, which are said to reach through its whole length. Its lower beds consist of chalk and flint nodules: but its mass is composed of a yellowish calcareous free-stone, which is soft and sectile in the quarry, but becomes of a lighter colour and acquires hardness by exposure to the air. Among the numerous fossils of this rock, the most common are various corallines and madripores, nummulites, echinites, belemnites, &c. A
bed

bed of gravel rests immediately on the strata which compose the hill. On the right bank of the Meuse, and opposite to the southern extremity of this hill, is a bold display of a calcareous rock, very analagous to the Derbyshire lime-stone.

On the parallel Roads of Glen Roy. By J. Mac Culloch, M.D., &c. — In this elaborate and somewhat prolix dissertation, Dr. Mac Culloch first describes, in the most circumstantial manner, the *roads* (or rather *lines*) in question; then shews the futility of every hypothesis which would ascribe them to artificial devices; and, after having examined the merits of the different theories which attribute them to natural causes, avows a preference of that which endeavours to deduce them from the antient existence of an extensive lake. He acknowledges, however, that even this explanation of these singular appearances is not unattended with formidable difficulties. On the whole, much mystery still hangs over the history of these parallel lines, which are *without a parallel*.

On a shifted Vein occurring in Lime-stone. By the Same. The rock, in which this vein is contained, is a secondary lime-stone from Ireland, reduced to the form of a mill-stone. The dislocated state of the vein is well represented in the plate.

‘It may afford matter for speculation to inquire in what condition the rock must have been to have undergone this change. It has probably consisted originally of a series of thin strata; which having been at some subsequent period fissured at an angle, have admitted the infiltration of the white carbonate of lime which now constitutes the vein in question. That it was perfectly hard at the time of this change, the angularity of the fragments shows. The same solution which filled the vein has probably joined the laminæ, and cemented the whole once more into a solid mass, although the junctions are no longer visible.’

The frequency of slides and fissures in strata, either on a large or a contracted scale, can scarcely be seriously questioned; and the secretion of siliceous or calcareous matter, from water percolating such fissures, presents an obvious solution of the *contemporaneous veins* of some mineralogists.

Explanation of a Supplementary Plate to the Paper on Vegetable Remains preserved in Chalcedony, printed in the Second Volume of the Transactions of the Geological Society. By the Same. — This article consists of only a single page, and refers exclusively to four figures illustrative of the subject announced.

On a peculiar Disposition of the Colouring Matters in a Schistose Rock. By the Same. — The rock which suggested the

the ensuing explanation is the killas, which occurs at the back of Plymouth dock:

' The general colour of the mass is a faint brown red, and a number of dove-coloured stripes of unequal thickness may be seen traversing it in very irregular curved lines, but bearing a sort of parallelism or relation to each other. To say that it resembles strongly a piece of marble paper, will be a comparison as illustrative as it is familiar.

' If we pursue the same familiar analogy, we may be led to explain the method by which the mass of killas acquired this peculiar disposition of its colouring matters.

' It is well known that the operation of marbling, either in oil or water, is produced by partially mixing together two or more coloured fluids of considerable density or tenacity: should the layers of the several fluids have been straight, the curved and wavy appearance is given by producing short and partial disturbances in different parts of the compound. There can be very little question that this rock must have been coloured by a similar operation while in a semifluid state, for on no other hypothesis can the peculiar distribution of the two coloured substances through the whole mass be explained. The continuity of the lines of colour precludes all possibility of a succession of deposited layers, otherwise than in those very lines, and affords at the same time a proof, if any were wanting, that the fissile property of this killas has not been the result of stratification.

' The whole must in fact be considered as formed either of one deposit, of a semifluid red mud, coloured afterwards by a mixture of blue mud, or of successive layers of red and blue mud. In this state the application of external disturbing force has produced the peculiar contortion here exhibited. It is evident that the theory of softening, used to explain the contortion of rocks, is in this case insufficient: a species of fluidity is requisite, otherwise the elongation and narrowing of the blue lines could not have taken place.'

Memoranda relative to the Porphyritic Veins, &c. of St. Agnes, in Cornwall. By the Rev. J. J. Conybeare. — After having indicated the peculiar characters of these veins, and their irregular distribution in the schistose rock, Mr. Conybeare, in concurrence with his friend Mr. Buckland, informs us that he felt much inclined to believe in their contemporaneous formation with that of the masses which they traverse.

On the Stream Works of Pentowan. By Edward Smith, Esq. — From the section of both the upper and the lower stream works of Pentowan, it appears that the principal difference between them is the want of marine matter in those of the former: but the latter is the richest in metallic produce. As celts, spear-heads, &c., have been discovered in these workings,

workings, at the depth of from twenty to thirty or forty feet, it is presumed that the accumulation of soil had taken place at periods comparatively recent; and the occurrence of *human skulls* in a stratum of loose sand, or mud, seems to confirm this conjecture.

Observations respecting the Lime-stone of Plymouth, extracted from Two Letters, dated September 26. 1814, and January 19. 1815, addressed to Henry Warburton, Esq. Secretary. By the Rev. Richard Hennah, jun. — This brief communication is not without its importance, since it proves the existence of fossil-remains in the Plymouth lime-stone, a fact which had been much doubted: but these remains, which consist chiefly of shells and madripores, are far from numerous.

Description of the Paramondra, a singular Fossil Body that is found in the Chalk of the North of Ireland; with some general Observations upon Flints in Chalk, tending to illustrate the History of their Formation. By the Rev. William Buckland, B. D., &c. — Mr. B. retains the Irish name by which the extraordinary specimens here described have been denominated. Scarcely any two of them, he says, are precisely similar; their length commonly varying from one to two feet, their thickness from six to twelve inches, and their weight being sometimes little short of two hundred pounds, with a central aperture which generally passes through their long diameter. Their substance is uniformly flint: but their position in their chalky matrix is quite irregular. Although their history is unavoidably obscure, they seem to bear some resemblance to hollow sponges, or alcyonia. In England, they have hitherto been found only at Whitlingham, near Norwich, and at some other places in the neighbourhood. The mention of the few particulars, which can be ascertained concerning them, leads to the consideration of the puzzling problem of the existence of flinty fossil-bodies in chalk-beds. Mr. B. partially adopts the commonly received doctrine of the gradual substitution of the siliceous fluid for the decay of the animal matter: yet, in by far the greater number of instances, he is induced to believe that the animal bodies perished rapidly; and that flinty matter was hastily introduced into the spaces left unoccupied by the decay of the animal nucleus. He also touches, with much ingenuity, on other parts of the same subject.

Notice of Fossil Shells in the Slate of Tintagel. By the Rev. J. J. Conybeare, &c. — Besides the rare specimen quoted in this memorandum, another, procured from the top of Snowdon, is mentioned and represented in the plate. In this country, the presence of shells in slate has been very seldom

seldom observed: but, in the celebrated quarries at Angers, it is, we believe, far from uncommon.

Notice of some Peculiarities observed in the Gravel of Litchfield. By A. Aikin, Esq. — Mr. Aikin invites the attention of the Society to the different stages and modifications of decomposition which the constituent parts of the gravel, and especially the horn-stone and agate-pebbles, have undergone.

‘The fourth variety, and the most remarkable of any, appears to have been a madreporic agate, in which the organic part was converted into quartz, while the matter which connected the tubes was chalcedony or horn-stone. In this state, being subjected to the same violent friction as the other materials of the gravel, it assumed the common figure of a rolled pebble. It has, however, since that period, been subjected to the solvent action of water under some particular modification, by which nearly the whole interstitial matter (with the exception of a few flakes here and there of quartz chalcedony) has been removed, while the quartz, moulded within the tubes of madreporic, and representing most perfectly the external form of the zoophyte, alone remains.’

Analysis of One Hundred Parts of a dark Bituminous Limestone, from the Parish of Whiteford, in Flintshire, North Wales. By Edward Daniel Clarke, LL.D. Professor of Mineralogy in the University of Cambridge, &c. &c. — This limestone, which possesses the valuable property of the *pulvis puteolanus* of the ancients, namely, of *setting* under water, owes its colour to the presence of bitumen; and its binding quality to its proportion of alumine and its rapid absorption of water. Its constituents are stated to be,

Lime	-	-	-	49.65
Carbonic acid	-	-	-	40.10
Alumine	-	-	-	8.80
Silex	-	-	-	60
Bitumen	-	-	-	60
Water	-	-	-	25
				<hr/>
				100.0

Barometrical Measurements. By William Allen, F.R.S. — These measurements were made with a barometer of the construction proposed by Sir Henry Englefield, and they refer to some of the principal heights in England and Wales. Among other results, we may notice the mean elevation of Snowdon above the level of the sea, reckoned at 3595.9 feet; that of Inghborough, 2412; and that of Skiddaw, 3917.

Baro-

Barometrical Measurements. By Samuel Woods, Esq. — This gentleman has calculated various other heights, also according to the formula of Sir H. Englefield, and has stated the results.

Notice concerning the Shropshire Witherite. By Arthur Aikin, Esq., &c. — Witherite, or native carbonate of barytes, of which the known repositories are extremely limited, has been observed by Mr. Aikin, in great abundance, in the lower part of a lead mine in Shropshire; where it occurs in irregular masses, which weigh from forty to two or three hundred pounds, imbedded in heavy spar.

* The name given to this substance by the miners is *yellow spar*, not that this is its real colour by day-light, but its transparency is so considerable that if a lighted candle be placed behind a mass of it, the whole will glow with a yellowish light, a circumstance by which the miners distinguish it from heavy spar: this latter from the looseness of its texture being in large masses quite opaque. The colour of the witherite is white with the slightest possible, if any, tinge of yellow: its fracture is broad striated approaching to strait foliated: it is for the most part massive. I have seen only a single specimen that presented any indications of a regular crystalline form. In other particulars it agrees with the usual descriptions of this substance.*

A hundred parts of this witherite yield

96. 3 carbonate of barytes.

1. 1 ————— of strontites.

0. 9 sulphate of barytes.

0. 5 silex.

0.25 alumine and oxyd of iron.

99.05

0.95 loss.

Extracts from the Minute-Book of the Geological Society.

* An extract of a letter from Dr. Mac Donnell, of Belfast, to Mr. Horner, was read, in which an account is given of a stratum of sub-marine peat and timber in Belfast Lough, situated under the level of ordinary tides, but generally left bare at ebb tides. Nuts are numerous in it, both on the east and west sides of the harbour. On the east side, where calcareous rocks exist, the nuts are filled with calcareous spar, but on the west side, where the rocks are schistose, they are empty. Some of them are perfectly filled, others only partially so, yet the shell appears quite entire, and unchanged by any petrifactive process, although when put into acids some effervescence takes place.*

The other extracts, from various correspondents, relate to some granitic veins in slate, in the Mourne-mountains; the
discovery

discovery of a trap-rock at Micklewood, in Gloucestershire, and of sulphate of strontian, near Knaresborough; a green waxy substance found near Stockport, in Cheshire; the aluminous strata at Campsie, in Scotland; the rock of Tino, in the Archipelago; magnetic iron-sand in Cheshire; the carnelians of Cambay; and some remarkable appearances in coak.

A list of donations of maps, books, and specimens, and a commodious index, &c. close this busy and instructive volume.

ART. VI. *Reflections on the Liberty of the Press in Great Britain*, translated from the German of the celebrated F. Von Gentz, Aulic Counsellor to the Emperor of Austria, and Author of "Fragments on the Balance of Power in Europe," &c. 8vo. pp. 111. 4s. Bohte and Co. 1819.

POLITICIANS have long been familiar with the name of Gentz, which the late important continental arrangements have introduced still farther to public notice. As an author, also, he has more than once been introduced in our pages, which they will testify in Vol. xxxiii. p. 492.; xli. p. 21., and lii. p. 509. His recent work on the liberty of the press, in which he betrays his hostility to that grand support of national freedom, was quickly noticed in our daily newspapers; and it is now before us, and before all Englishmen, in a shape in which we and they have an opportunity of at once perusing and condemning his unworthy doctrines. His object in it is to inquire how far that freedom of the press in England, to which we feel that we owe so much, really exists, or would be desirable; and what modifications should be made in it before any semblance of it should be adopted in any state on the Continent. He shews himself throughout to be a casuist of the first order; who is able, by many links and winding-bouts of words, to wrap himself up in darkness when he finds it convenient, so as sometimes to evade the question, at other times to substitute instead of reasoning an arbitrary determination, and at all events, where he cannot convince, to perplex and confound the reader.

He commences by defining *an unlimited freedom of the press*; and asserting that a right to such freedom, if it existed in a state of nature, yet on the formation of society became a social right, and as such was liable to restriction, and therefore the unlimited freedom no longer remained. We extract his definition and comments at length.

' An unlimited freedom of the press would be a situation, wherein every individual would have the right of diffusing, by means of the art of printing, his thoughts, opinions, and judgments, on all persons and things, without being, before publication, restricted by any law, or becoming afterwards responsible to any law for that act. Those who assume that certain rights existed previously to the formation of civil society, and independently of it, or who set up a claim to pretended *natural* rights, cannot have a definition of what they call the natural right of the liberty of the press, more favorable to their views.

' It is, however, self-evident that without the union of men, in society, there could be no regular communication of ideas, nor any demand for writing, presses, or books. But were even all these things not actually indebted to society for their origin, still would they be not the less bound by its regulations. The moment that social order is established, there can no longer be any question as to natural rights. Whether such rights previously existed is a metaphysical proposition which every one may, according to his system, affirm, or deny, or leave unresolved. Every right, from whatever source it may take its rise, is, or becomes a social right.

' A social right, unaccompanied by restriction, is indeed a thing scarcely conceivable, for the mere idea of any such a right must necessarily be derived from reciprocal limitations of freedom. The right of circulating our thoughts, through the medium of the press, has, therefore, like every other right, its boundaries. In the social or only admissible sense of the phrase, the unlimited freedom of the press is consequently a non-entity.'

In all this there seems no little confusion. If a right to any absolute enjoyment (say, to breathe the air,) existed in a state of nature, and if such right on the formation of society became qualified,—that is, subject to the general question whether it were beneficial to the community or not,—yet it would not follow that the enjoyment should be qualified: for it might happen that the right to such absolute enjoyment would be beneficial to the community. If it be desirable and for the good of the community that persons should publish their opinions without restraint before or responsibility afterward, then how would such a right, although we should admit it to be a social right, and speak 'in the only admissible sense of the phrase,' be 'a non-entity?' We are not now discussing how this point should be determined: we are only stating that M. Gentz, while he seems to be reasoning, is merely begging the question. After having satisfied himself, however, that there are legitimate bounds to the freedom of the press, he proceeds to say:

'It must be confessed that there exists in human nature an aspiration after freedom beyond these legitimate bounds. Limitations, of the necessity of which we have never entertained a doubt, often become odious to us, when they present obstacles to our pursuits: and, when animated by a great interest, or an important justification, what author may not, for a moment, have wished every extraneous tie and obligation removed, in order that he might be at liberty to obey the dictates of his own immediate feelings, without considering whether his internal impulse would carry him to a good or a bad result? But, when fundamental maxims and the public profession of principles are at stake, no man who possesses self-respect will manifest such a disposition; and the liberty of the press, in the unlimited sense of the term, though it should have some secret friends, still would not easily find an open defender.'

Here, though considerable obscurity prevails, which we know not whether we are to ascribe to the translator or to the author, we believe M. Von Gentz to have proceeded another step, and to have discovered that the legitimate bounds consist in prohibiting whatever may oppose 'fundamental maxims' and 'the public profession of principles.' That is to say, it is a necessary postulate in politics that any principles, which the state has once established, must be right. If then, the infallibility of a spiritual sovereign, or the vicegerency of a temporal governor, if the slave-trade, or if punishment by torture, be once sanctioned by the state, such decision must be just, absolute, and peremptory!

The author then proceeds to observe that the restrictions on the press are of two kinds, either censorial or judicial; and, in his mode of stating what has been the established usage on the Continent, he sufficiently develops the tendency of his own mind:

'In all European states, England alone excepted, the press has, until very recently, been constantly regulated by measures of police.* The privileges possessed by the English writers were not, in former times, regarded as subjects of censure or reproach for other governments. It was readily perceived that they

* It is true that in the 17th and 18th centuries there prevailed in Holland, some parts of Switzerland, and in the territories of a few inconsiderable princes of the German empire, and free Imperial cities, a silently authorised liberty of the press, of which the laws took no notice, and which was only occasionally checked when serious complaints were made against it. These examples, which had their origin either in the republican spirit, or smallness of the respective states, or in their political relations, can no longer be taken into consideration in the altered state of the European system.'

were intimately interwoven with all the remaining peculiarities of the British constitution, and that, were they detached from it, or removed to another soil, where they would be in contradiction with the form of government, the legislation, the administration of justice, and the national manners, they could not be expected to thrive. But as the human mind, along with the actual possession of a higher cultivation, and the chimerical notion of more extended faculties, has become accustomed to see in ancient regulations nothing but ancient fetters, the wish to emancipate the press from the dominion of the police, has been actively and strongly expressed throughout all Europe. The measures adopted in France and the Netherlands have also served to administer fresh food to this desire; so that a determination, grown progressively general, has been formed both by authors and readers, to regard freedom of the press and police legislation as things perfectly irreconcilable; and accordingly this conclusion has been gradually adopted, that by the liberty of the press nothing less is to be understood than the right of addressing the public, without being subject to any previous inspection or controul.

He next inquires whether the system which prevents the abuse of the press by police or legislation, or that which punishes its abuse, when committed, by penal laws, deserves to be preferred; and we shall quote his own comparison of the two systems:

‘ That the system of preventive laws, even independently of the numerous faults by which its execution is almost every where accompanied, and almost every where brought into discredit, should neither be satisfactory nor popular, is a circumstance sufficiently intelligible. The operations of this system are so simple, that they may be easily observed and, without much effort, judged. By their generality they reach every author, if not in the same way, at least, in so far that he cannot, without responsibility, elude them. They are besides, even under the most favourable circumstances, exposed to a strong suspicion of being altogether arbitrary or discretionary. Finally, and this is the most serious consideration of all, they touch a class of persons who unite to a certain portion of real merit a large mass of false pretensions, and touch them too in the tenderest point; they wound their self-love, obstruct the spontaneous current of their witticisms, their inventions, their fictions, their follies, and their passions, and oppose to the opinion, which each individual entertains of himself and his works, the weight of a higher authority, and what is still far more intolerable, a real or at least legally presumed superior judgment.

‘ On the other hand, notwithstanding the general dislike of penal laws, nothing is more natural than the favour which the system of responsibility after the fact has obtained. With most persons, that system needs no other recommendation than that of superseding the authority of the police. In this, as in a thousand similar cases, few give themselves the trouble to enquire, how

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Now that law will be framed which must necessarily supply the place of an ordinance so offensive to them. Any regulation appears more desirable than the existing restraints, though the change may be to measures infinitely more oppressive. When the nature of the judicial proceedings, against the abuse of the press, are not known by experience, only the bright side of the subject is seen, and every thing is supposed to be gained if the controul of the censor be removed. Even in countries where this system has long prevailed, those who do not immediately suffer by its operation, soon lose sight of its real nature, oppression, and perils. If in any remarkable case, general attention be excited, by public accusations, provisional arrests, and all the solemn apparatus of a judicial trial, having perhaps at last a tragical issue then all is agitation, and the far-famed guarantee of literary freedom is on every side calumniated as a feeble bulwark, a treacherous snare, and an instrument of the basest tyranny. The momentary terror, however, soon passes away. Every author, even the individual most conscious of having overstepped all bounds, and who may have dared all the vengeance of the laws, hopes, as far as regards himself, to be able to weather the storm; and, as the thunderbolt falls but on few heads, and seldom on the most criminal, the hope is not wholly unfounded. Even in the most extreme case the progress of the trial presents many chances of deliverance. The defendant may rely on the ability of his counsel, on his own talents and eloquence, or on the preponderance of the popular feeling in his favour. Many see, in a trial of this kind, only the means of acquiring celebrity, and regard even the threatened punishment (especially before its effects are felt) as a new claim to the approbation and sympathy of all who entertain similar sentiments, or as an honorable martyrdom.

But whatever stress may be laid on these views and motives, this much is certain, that, in order to compare the one system with the other, it is at least necessary that both should be thoroughly understood. With regard to the system of censorship, there is no difficulty in acquiring this knowledge; it is founded on a few simple rules, and its advantages and inconveniences are equally obvious. On the contrary, the system which subjects the offences of the press to judicial investigation is of a very complicated nature. It is connected with several questions of jurisprudence and state policy, which are not only highly important, but often of great critical delicacy; and, without the strictest attention to all the other legal and political relations of the state, in which it is already introduced, or to which it may be accommodated, it cannot be theoretically understood, still less practically estimated.

It is obvious that, in this comparison, M. Von Gentz merely considers the benefit of the ruling powers; not the benefit of the community; and his argument resolves itself into this, that the ruling powers know, at least what principles they do not like, and that by means of a censorship they

they may prevent the publication of such principles: but that by prosecution afterward they perhaps only render the prosecuted person or doctrine popular, and give additional publicity to that which they were desirous of suppressing. What, however, let us ask, is the right of censorship but the right of stifling knowledge, of suppressing truth, and of perpetuating and aggravating all the evils of institutions which may happen to exist? That such inspection is not indifferent even to the cause of mere science, we know and may assert from the fate of Galileo; and how far it may benefit the religion, or the morals, or the happiness of any community, will sufficiently appear if we compare those states in which the press is so restrained with the condition of England where it is called free. What, moreover, are the productions of the press when subject to a licence? They are only a dull, vapid, and lifeless mass, — “the language of the times.” On the contrary, a judicial inquiry, in whatever form, at least brings the whole matter before the tribunal of public opinion: the attention of the community is then roused; and, should those who are appointed to decide in a court of justice be connected in the strongest manner with the prosecuting party, there would still be numerous checks, the influence of which could not but be sensibly felt. Even the most absolute government, were the press to be left free from previous censorship, would in the course of time be much modified.

M. Gentz gives this short history of the liberty of the press in England:

‘ Every thing in England, having reference to the use and abuse of the press, was formerly regulated by the Court of Star-chamber, and remained under its exclusive jurisdiction until the middle of the 17th century. The Star-chamber, which was an ancient tribunal revived by Henry VII., was appointed, by authority of the prerogative, to take cognizance of all offences against public order, and all transgressions of the police laws of the kingdom, and pronounced judgment without the intervention of a jury, and without respect to the ordinary forms of process. This tribunal, which might be considered a sort of superior court of police, fixed the number of printers and presses, and appointed an inspector of the press, under the title of *Licensor*, without whose consent nothing could be published. In the year 1641, not long before the breaking out of the civil war, a time when all the old royal prerogatives were overthrown, the Star-chamber was abolished. The parliament then assumed that police authority over the press which had hitherto been possessed by the Star-chamber, and continued during the Protectorate to exercise it, through the medium of commissioners. Two years after the Restoration, the regulations of Cromwell's parliament were again

put in force, and were repeatedly renewed under Charles II. and James II. The last of these measures expired in the year 1692, three years after the revolution which placed William III. on the throne. It was, however, determined that it should be prolonged for two years more; the King, himself, regarded its existence as a matter of importance. At last, in the year 1694, parliament declared against the farther continuance of the act. Thus through the mere extinguishing of the old law, which took place almost in silence, and certainly without the importance of this negative decision to posterity being foreseen by any who participated in it, was the existing system introduced.

Many parts of this passage are ambiguously stated. A reader of it might be led to believe that the Star-chamber before the time of Henry VII., as an antient tribunal, had cognizance of libels: though the fact is that by the statute of Henry VII. the Star-chamber was not only revived but its jurisdiction very much enlarged; and it was not till long afterwards that it affected to interfere, and that the licences then issued were rather privileges than immunities. We think, too, that the importance of what M. Gentz terms *the negative decision* was foreseen at the time; and that the experience of a century, particularly during the rebellion, of the great influence which the press exerts over public opinion, and the arguments of some of our ablest writers on the subject, especially Milton, must have satisfied the legislature, as well as the reflecting part of the community in general, that a press unshackled by previous restrictions could not be too highly valued.

The writer's attention is next directed to discuss the modes of procedure by indictment, and by information *ex officio*, as instituted by the King's Attorney-General. His remarks on this last mode seem to betray much misconception, both as to the extent of its application in old times and as to the occasions of the present practice. 'Formerly,' he observes, 'a number of offences were prosecuted in this manner, particularly those which, as the sages of the law express themselves, tend to endanger the government of the King; and obstruct him in the execution of his office. Since the Revolution of 1688, informations at the suit of the crown have grown much into disuse. Even in the most important criminal cases, (such as those of felony and high treason,) the regular form of indictment is observed.' Now it happens that, by the law of the land, no offences higher than misdemeanours could be the objects of process by information, and that such mode of procedure never was applicable to cases of felony. It was provided by Magna Charta that "none should be imprisoned, nor put out of his freehold,
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nor of his franchises, nor free custom, unless it be by the law of the land." By statute 25 Edward III. c. 4. it was established that, thenceforth, "none should be taken [imprisoned] by petition or suggestion made to our Lord the King or to his council, unless it be by indictment or presentment of good and lawful people of the same neighbourhood where such deeds be done, in due manner, or by process made by writ original at the common law; nor that none be out of his franchises nor of his freeholds unless he be duly brought into answer and forejudged of the same by the course of the law;" and by statute 28 Edward III. c. 3. it was enacted to the same effect, "that no man, of what estate or condition that he be, shall be put out of land or tenement, nor taken, nor imprisoned, nor disinherited, nor put to death, without being brought in answer by due process of law." This again was confirmed by statute 42. c. 3. of the same reign, "that no man be put to answer without presentment before justices, or matter of record, or by due process and writ original according to the old law of the land." It is to be remarked, indeed, that even the statute of 11 Henry VII. chap. 3., which gave licence to common informers, which occasioned the recovery of absolute penalties, and all the extortions and tyrannical proceedings of Empson and Dudley, and which was afterward repealed early in the reign of Henry VIII., made an express exception of treason, murder, or felony; not allowing informations to be brought in such cases.

Again, says the author:

'The information is continued in actions for libel, which have, for a length of time, been exclusively carried on in this manner. The real ground of this exception may be traced to the peculiar nature of the proceedings in cases of libel, and cannot remain long undiscovered by an attentive observer. The Attorney-General usually manages the prosecution which he brings before the Court of King's Bench, and a full representation of the grounds on which the charge is founded is referred, with the defence, to the decision of a jury. Should the Grand Jury, as in cases of indictment, be called upon to consider the admissibility of the charge, a preliminary instruction of the process must take place before them. But, as in prosecutions for offences of the press, every instruction of a process, however provisional it may be, must necessarily enter into the merits of the case, the decision of the Grand Jury would unavoidably embrace the main question: *Libel, or not Libel?* If the decision should be in favour of the charge, the tribunal and jury, before whom the action might ultimately be brought, would have to try over again the same question. Thus the prosecution in the Court of King's Bench would assume the character of an appeal, attended in the case of the acquittal

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acquittal of the defendant with a singularity unheard of in British jurisprudence; namely, that on a question of libel, a second jury would correct the opinion of the first. Instead, however, of resting on this, certainly not unimportant distinction, as a reason for abandoning the prosecution by indictment, it is found more convenient in England to justify the form in which the Attorney-General proceeds, on the ground of the alledged necessity of acting promptly in cases for libel; — a ground which, upon consideration, will appear not to have been ill chosen.

Here M. Gentz is unfortunately erroneous both in his assertion and in his argument. Prosecutions of this nature have not, for a length of time, been *exclusively* carried on by information, and in several cases recourse has been had to the more constitutional mode of proceeding. Thomas Paine, for instance, was *indicted* for his "Age of Reason," and Mr. Frost for the use of seditious words. Neither is the subsequent reference to a jury more in the nature of an appeal in this than in any other case. The Grand Jury only decide that evidence of guilt has been produced sufficient to justify farther legal inquiry: they do not absolutely conclude that the tendency of the publication is mischievous, nor that the innuendos alleged are just, nor that the culprit was the author or publisher of the work: but merely that such presumptions for all these matters have been exhibited as demand the investigation of the country.

It is rather singular that, immediately after the paragraph in which it is stated that the mode of proceeding by information has been rationally justified on account of its promptitude, M. Von Gentz gives an account of the discretionary power which the Attorney-General possesses as to the period of bringing on the trial; and of the fact that, in some years, more than twenty informations were commenced against the publishers of news-papers, and that only one proceeded. The circumstance was noticed at the time with much good sense by Lord Holland; and certainly, if the necessity of immediate proceedings for the security of public peace be the only reason to prove that informations *ex officio* should ever be adopted, instead of the constitutional mode of indictment, the arbitrary and despotic power of keeping prosecutions in suspense can never be necessary. It surely cannot be denied that the power of filing an information against a writer, subjecting him by that very act to considerable expence, and then either proceeding or not at discretion, is a gross evil: — but, however subtilely M. Gentz may mix the historical with the argumentative part of his work, he will not be able to persuade us that it is necessary, where a press is unrestrained

strained by previous censorship, to lodge an arbitrary power in any individual whomsoever. In no case can this power of keeping the terrors of a criminal prosecution hanging over an author's head be requisite in a state: in no case can the power of subjecting an author to heavy costs, however innocent he may be of any crime, be essential to the peace and security of a country; and in no case can there be such imminent peril, that a Grand Jury might not be summoned to find or to reject a bill. M. Gentz, however, after having represented the arbitrary power of the prosecutor, and confounded it with others which he terms inseparable evils, next considers the judicial proceedings; and here his whole aim is to prove that the Judge, or rather the party who is to determine, must be invested with discretionary power. He would willingly call this person or party a *Censor*; endeavouring to suppress the fact that one of the characteristics of censorship is mystery and concealment. If we were to admit his assertion in its fullest extent, the benefit of an open trial is of incalculable importance: but the value of a jury, as formed in England, is of such moment that M. Gentz can only carp at it by insinuations; and the ground of his approbation, on the whole, is somewhat diverting:—it evinces at least the medium through which he has looked into the whole question.

‘A much better remedy (he says) is afforded by the arrangement at present existing in England: whereby, in cases of libel, the judicial authority is, as it were, divided into two separate portions: one of which, the bench of Judges, merely superintends the process, and pronounces the final judgment; whilst the other, the Jury, decides on the main question of the guilt or innocence of the defendant. We are, however, far from perceiving in this method that degree of perfection which has been lately ascribed to it in France, by several men, in other respects highly intelligent. We are rather of opinion that, for pronouncing judgment on political writings, a jury is, in fact, an authority infinitely less competent than the members of a court of justice. But as, according to the foregoing observations, the sentence of no judicial authority, on offences of the press, can be entirely exempt from the suspicion or the appearance of arbitrary decision, and partiality, we conceive it to be, beyond all contradiction, better that this suspicion or appearance should attach to a selection from the people than to the Judges. For this very reason, in countries where such forms already exist, or are compatible with criminal proceedings, we should prefer the Jury, with all its deficiencies and dangers, to the exclusive responsibility of the Judge, which we regard as the greater evil of the two.’

Notwithstanding all M. Gentz's observations, we are convinced that the offence of libel, though not susceptible of absolute

solute precision, might be rendered much more determinate; and that the nature of the injury to be apprehended by the public might be more plainly defined:—but this, we are aware, is a subject enveloped with difficulties. M. Gentz adds a history of the power of juries; and after a statement of the affair of Wilkes's "North Briton," which by an error (we presume) of the press he refers to the beginning of the reign of George the First, he proceeds to speak of *Junius*, in terms of vehement indignation. He takes care, also, to insert in a note some expressions which Mr. Fox used in his opposition to Serjeant Glynn's motion for a committee to inquire into the state of trials relating to the liberty of the press: for he is anxious to depreciate the character of that great man, by bringing forwards his conduct at an early and immature period of life, and selecting perhaps the only instance in which his friends would have reason to disapprove it. M. Gentz's remarks on Fox's Bill relating to Juries afford a fair specimen of his casuistry:

'The decision of Parliament, in the year 1792, is still viewed as the common triumph of the rights of juries and the liberty of the press, and is consequently regarded, by the friends of both, as a most fortunate event. Whether it is proved to be such, by its results, is a question to which, on account of the diversity of views and feelings, very different and opposite answers may be expected. We shall not conceal our own opinion on the subject, however little it may correspond with the favourite notions of the day. We must, however, in the first place, remark that this parliamentary decision might appear justifiable, even to those who entertain a more unfavourable opinion of its practical effects than we do: for there is still another question behind; namely, whether the opposite decision would not have been attended with worse consequences. What might not have happened had the Parliament allowed the old wavering and equivocal practice to continue, or had, by a solemn decision, sanctioned the maxim that juries, in actions for libel, were only competent to pronounce on the fact of the publication? The judicial power, which, in these stormy times, has too often had to share the fate of the other authorities, would have become, in the highest degree, odious and suspected. The inevitable consequences of every public prosecution against offences of the press—the analyzing of the offensive article, the defence of the accused, usually more bold and always more mischievous than the libel itself, the scandal of the public discussion, the sophistry of the counsel, the contest of the Crown-advocates with the defendant, and often of the Judge with the Jury; in short, all the various circumstances which, in these dangerous proceedings, are of far greater importance, and are attended with far more serious consequences than any verdict of acquittal or condemnation can be—would have remained unchanged. The Jury would still, as they had formerly done, have

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sometimes acquitted the defendant, contrary to all legal evidence, on the ground of the proof of the acts of printing and publication being insufficient; or in the case of that being impossible, would, by a dry return of *Not Guilty*, have reduced the Judge to the perplexing alternative of either setting the defendant at liberty, with the fullest conviction of his guilt, or declaring the verdict invalid. The licentiousness of the press would not have been restrained, whilst the remedies against it would have been still further degraded in public opinion. Thus, according to our view of the subject, the Parliament of 1792, by throwing the whole responsibility on the Jury, made choice of the lesser evil.'

The character of Junius is followed by characters of Cobbett and Hone: but the author has nearly forgotten a little of his usual discretion when he makes these observations on the course pursued by government regarding Hone:

'After Cobbett's flight from England, Hone declared himself to be the continuer of the political paper published by the former. Nothing more is requisite to characterize him. He commenced his career by parodying various forms of public worship: in which the Regent, the Ministers, the Members of Parliament, the Laws, and even the Constitution, were satyriized in the most outrageous manner. There was scarcely a single line in these Parodies, which, if treated as a political offence by any ordinary judicial tribunal, would not have been sufficient to send him to prison or the pillory. But the sad experience of similar cases, in which juries had protected the most atrocious libellers, seemed to have completely discouraged the ministers. Other expedients were meditated; but a year of hesitation passed away: *mussabat tacito medicina timore*. At length it was resolved to overlook the political contents of the libel, and merely to prosecute the blasphemous form of the publication. But even this course, which was resorted to in consideration of a certain mechanical respect for religion, which the English people, amidst all their demoralization, still preserve, produced, after three days of unexampled contests, before three successive juries, only three similar verdicts of acquittal.'

At the close of his pamphlet, however, the writer is still more explicit:

'It is not true that the abuse of the press, in England, is to be regarded as a mere harmless sport or a pardonable indecorum. It is, on the contrary, a severe, enormous, and overwhelming malady, only capable of being withstood by a body, which, if not perfectly sound in all its vital parts, is still strong and vigorous. It is not the immediate operation of respect for the government, (which has long since been violated by the licentiousness of the press,) but the remedies supplied by the constitution — by the reciprocal attitude of the various classes of society, and political parties — by the rights and privileges of particular orders — by the resistance which constitutional forms have well secured and confirmed,

confirmed, of the great tranquil mass to the popular excesses, distractions, and innovations, — by all the various counterpoises to the destructive action of a licentious press, that have hitherto maintained England in an upright position. The antiquity of her institutions, the character of the better portion of the nation, and the influence of distinguished statesmen and philosophers, have also, in no small degree, contributed to her security. A state, less fully armed and prepared, would long since have undergone the most dreadful convulsions, in consequence of the unpunished licentiousness of great and petty libellers, under a legislation and judicial authority, which no longer overawes them. Quite contrary to what many suppose, the British constitution is as little indebted to the freedom of the press for its origin as for its maintenance. The constitution produced the freedom of the press; but it did not overlook the abuses and the dangers of that freedom; it has, during a whole century, prosecuted them by inadequate penal laws and impotent forms; — it has, at length, been compelled to abandon the field to them, and if it still subsist, it is because it has maintained itself, not *by* but *in spite of* the degenerate liberty of the press.

But why should a question of this kind be driven to its utmost extremity? Why calculate how large a dose of corrupting and destroying matter a state may receive without accomplishing its destruction? If the licentiousness of the press do not actually threaten the existence of England, is it no evil to poison all the sources both public and private of her moral life? The disorganizing principles which the periodical pamphleteers, particularly those of the common order, instil into the lower classes of the people, are truly alarming in their nature; but still more alarming, when it is considered that the men who promulgate them exercise an unbounded controul over the opinion of millions of readers, who cannot procure the antidote of better writings. Those perfidious demagogues incessantly address the people, in declamations on violated rights, deluded hopes, and real or imaginary sufferings. Every burthen which may fall heavy on individuals, every accidental difficulty, every inconvenience, produced by the change of times and circumstances, is represented as the immediate effect of the incapability, selfishness, and culpable blundering of the administration. The most criminal and absurd designs are imputed to the ministers; and lest the oppressed should delay to seek redress at their own hands, the future is painted to them in blacker colours than the present; thus, a thick cloud of dejection, bitterness, and discontent, is spread over the nation; men's minds are filled with hostile aversions and gloomy anxieties; and the poor man is, at last, deprived of comfort, cheerfulness, and all enjoyment of life. Every feeling of satisfaction and security, and of confidence in the government, the tranquil and willing obedience of the people, their steady resignation under unavoidable sacrifices, and all the fruits and ornaments of a good constitution, are falsified, perverted, and discouraged by the harpy hands of these iniquitous scribblers. That neither
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the intellectual nor moral cultivation of the people can prosper in such a state of political corruption is self-evident. — Is this then a trifling evil?

‘ But the mischief does not end here. The inevitable re-action of the enormous abuse of the press, on the spirit and measures of the government, must be taken into account. Though no statesman ought to yield to feelings of personal displeasure or animosity: though a British statesman must necessarily acquire more than any other an indifference to hostile insinuations, and personal slanders and calumnies; and though most British ministers are evidently as great proficient in the art of toleration and endurance as human nature will permit them to be, yet it can scarcely be supposed that the daily reiterated attacks of the most wicked and audacious writers should make no impression on them. That they must occasionally cherish a wish to set bounds, in one way or other, to this atrocious disorder, is as certain as that they are men. Indeed their duty, as well as their feelings, must lead them to form this wish. As statesmen, they cannot be ignorant of the pernicious consequences of the evil, and as guardians of public order they cannot regard it with indifference. At the same time they are perfectly aware that it is not in their power to check the intemperance of the press, by any immediate reform of the laws and institutions connected with it.*

‘ There remains therefore no course for the ministers to take, except to endeavour to maintain a certain balance in the political machine, by redoubling their efforts to extend their own power, and consequently to limit individual liberty, if not by unconstitutional stretches of authority, at least by every measure which can be in any way reconciled with the letter of the law, and by any means justified in the eye of the legislature. The French minister of justice, a short time since, judiciously observed, that the act of Habeas Corpus, the great bulwark of personal liberty in England, would in these times have been, perhaps, less frequently suspended, had not the abuse of the press increased and multiplied the apprehensions of the Government, and that England has thus probably lost, in one of her liberties, as much as she fancies she has gained in another. The justice of this observation cannot

‘ * To replace the liberty of the press within more restricted legal limits, or to effect any essential change in the judicial proceedings against offences of the press, has become impracticable in England, and the attempt would, perhaps, only produce an increase of evil. When a nation, like Great Britain, has for upwards of a century been free from all political restrictions on the press, and when those who employ it have, during five-and-twenty years, been accustomed to stand in awe of no judge, either for its use or its abuse, but to be responsible to a body, which, however ignorant it may be, is selected from the people themselves, it would be a hazardous undertaking to touch such a system. It scarcely need be observed that this is no proof of its excellence. A disease does not cease to be a disease because it is incurable.’

be doubted. It appears certain that, of late, more than one ministerial measure would have assumed another character; more than one political transaction would have taken a different direction, had not the licentiousness of the popular writers deranged all the usual modes of viewing subjects, and changed the whole situation of the people, with respect to the constitutional authorities, and awakened distrust and fear in minds which would otherwise have been strangers to either.

We forbear now, as we have done in former parts of this review, from making any comments where we should only be repeating sentiments that must have passed through the mind of every reader, on perusing the passages which we have extracted. In this country, the subject has been so fully and so often agitated, that little new can now be offered; and the sophistry and fallacies of a writer, who, while he pretends to be taking an impartial view, is throughout advocating the cause of servility, sufficiently expose themselves.

A few general remarks, on the caution which should be adopted if any thing is to be done in favour of the press in continental states, terminate this publication. M. Gentz recommends that the state of the law should be as accurate as it can be rendered, though it must always be imperfect: that the form of prosecution be determined by fixed rules; and that, if the trial by jury exists among the institutions of the country, it should be introduced also into the proceedings against offences of the press: 'but it should be endeavoured so to unite its functions with those of the judge, that the interests of the state and of public order may not be entirely left without protection.' Where the practice of choosing juries from among the people does not exist, he would be still more cautious how he introduced them, or how he qualified their office; 'that the exercise of a function so foreign to the ordinary judge may not produce greater injury to the parties interested, — namely, the author and the state, — than could ever be laid to the charge of a political censor.' All this caution satisfies us that M. Von Gentz is fully aware of the strong and sure safeguard which the establishment of a jury affords to the cause of freedom; and more conclusive evidence could not be adduced of the value of such an institution, than the indirect and jesuitical opposition which it encounters from such quarters.

M. Gentz announces his intention to complete his investigation by an account of the state of the press in France, with some remarks on the system of censorship, and a review of a work by Professor Krug. We rejoice that the spirit of investigation is so much alive in Germany; and perhaps we have not the less

confidence in the power of truth when we see that it excites so much suspicion, watchfulness, and opposition. We might almost hope that these sounds of alarm and anxiety are preludes of a mighty change; and we should rejoice in these days to witness the vision which presented itself to the ardent imagination of Milton: "Methinks I see in my mind a noble and puissant nation rousing herself like a strong man after sleep, and shaking her invincible locks. Methinks I see her as an eagle nursing her mighty youth, and kindling her undazzled eyes at the full mid-day beam; purging and unscaling her long abused sight at the fountain itself of heavenly radiance; while *the whole noise of timorous and flocking birds, with those also that love the twilight, flutter about amazed at what she means.*"

ART. VII. *Essay on the Mysteries of Eleusis*; by M. Ouvaroff, Counsellor of State to His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of Russia; Curator of Public Instruction in the Department of Saint Petersburg; Honorary Member of the Academy of Sciences, and of the Academy of Fine Arts in that City; Corresponding Member of the Royal Society of Gottingen, &c. Translated from the French, by J. D. Price. With Observations, by J. Christie. 8vo. pp. 200. 10s. 6d. Boards. Rodwell and Martin. 1817.

THE prolix and honourable appellations of M. Ouvaroff are strikingly contrasted with the plain J. Christie of this English title-page: but, as on other occasions, "the power of art without the show" is here overborne by the "show of art without the power." The Russian hierophant —

(*"De conducendo loquitur jam rhetore Thule!"*)

the mystagogue from the banks of the Vistula, — does not, indeed, appear to us to have elucidated the obscure subject of antient Free-Masonry. We are glad, however, to see any approach to literary distinction in the inhabitants of these hyperborean regions; and, if they be yet unable to cope with the formed and full-grown scholars of England, the deficiency is a necessary consequence of their recent civilization. Still we must not be carried so far by our general interest in the cause of literature all over the world, as to shut our eyes to the sort of pompous indistinctness which pervades the pages of the Russian interpreter of the mysteries of Eleusis. Disposed to build whole systems on slender facts, he is even more incautious in estimating the weight of evidence than our learned countryman, Warburton

ton himself; and, we need scarcely add, he is wholly inferior (as who is not?) to that celebrated writer in subtlety of conjecture, in happiness of illustration, and in profound and various erudition.

Mr. Christie has saved us much trouble by his masterly examination of the several parts of M. Ouvaroff's Essay, subjoined to the work; and he has so cleared and simplified the arguments of his author, so forcibly and distinctly pointed out his weakness, and so amply (we think much too amply) extolled his strength, that we shall principally confine ourselves to his 'Observations,' in the present article. We are always sorry to differ from him: but his great sagacity in developing the symbols of Eleusis on the funeral vases, commonly called Etruscan*, cannot be unaccompanied with sufficient ingenuousness to prevent him from denying that the habit of *guessing much*, on these ambiguous matters, obviously exposes him to the frequent danger of *guessing wrong*.

Mr. Christie observes (page 177.) that 'Warburton had noticed from Plato, that the end and design of initiation was to restore the soul to that state from whence it fell, as from its native seat of perfection.' He adds:

'This is completely *in unison* with' (and completely *in anticipation* of) 'the suggestions of Mr. Ouvaroff, so very philosophically and beautifully expressed in his third section, where he apprehends that man's relation to the Deity, the original dignity of his nature, his fall, and the (*supposed*) mean of his return to God, preserved from ancient traditions, composed the doctrines of the *anáphora*.

'By Mr. Ouvaroff's method of resolving polytheism into its first principles, many fables in the popular religion of Greece will derive a satisfactory elucidation. The descent of Proserpine, who, instead of gathering fruit in Eden, was hurried to the *Inferi* when culling flowers in Enna; the wanderings of Ceres, and the partial recovery of her daughter, probably effected at Eleusis through the spiritual Iacchus, the parallel story of Eurydice wounded in the ankle by a serpent, (applying still more closely to the fate of our first parent,) and her restoration by Orpheus, a reputed founder of the mysteries, and the relapse of nature thus imperfectly restored, with other fables that might be cited, all become intelligible from Mr. Ouvaroff's hypothesis.'

First, then, for Mr. Christie. When this learned and ingenious gentleman conjectures that Proserpine is Eve, he does nothing new; the gathering of flowers instead of

* See our remarks on Mr. C.'s Disquisition on the Etruscan Vases, M. R. Vol. lxii. N. S. p. 407.; and lxiii. p. 63.

fruits is too analogous a circumstance not to have struck many allegorizers of fable in antient and modern times: but, when he talks of the *parallel story* of Eurydice, we begin to look about us, and can discover little in our mythology to unite Proserpine with Eurydice, except that the neatness and handiness of the latter may have adapted her to fill the place of a *Maid of Honour* to the former; and, as to the likeness of Eve and Eurydice, (we take Mr. Christie's comparison,) it will be remembered that the former was running into temptation when she fell, but that Eurydice found the serpent fatal when flying from danger. Of all Mr. C.'s guesses in this passage, however, the most gratuitous is that which relates to the '*spiritual Iacchus*.' We could indulge in laughter on this subject: but we restrain ourselves; only observing on Mr. C.'s assertion that 'the recovery of Proserpine was *probably* effected at Eleusis through the spiritual Iacchus,' that it is quite as probable that the conductor Mercury was the instrument of this restoration, or one of the Dioscuri.

Why is the 'method of resolving polytheism into its first principles' to be called M. Ouvaroff's method, or M. Ouvaroff's hypothesis? Ever since Pythagoras awakened the first germ of Grecian allegory, (if indeed *he* first awakened it,) — ever since the mystifications of Plato down to his latest votaries, the children of a philosophical imagination, — whether honoured in the school of Alexandria, or ridiculed in the gymnasia of modern Germany, from the earliest periods of literature, properly so called, to the present, — scholiasts or original writers have been ready to allegorize the Theogonies of Hesiod and of Homer, and to 'resolve polytheism into its first principles;' to bring it back to that "Worship of the Elements*" to which Mr. Christie has so ably adverted; and to prove (whether unintentionally, or with design,) the alliance between Pagan and Jewish antiquities, and the pervading force of one original class of traditions, scattered through the most distant races of mankind. We feel, however, that it is impossible, within any due limits, to explain our ideas on this unbounded subject; and we shall only remark that a general admission of the indications of a Sacred Original, in the fables of heathenism †,

* See our next article.

† Bacon's Fables of the Antients, well examined by an allegorical scholar, would furnish many clues for happy conjecture: but perhaps Apuleius is the storehouse, yet unexhausted, of Eleusinian knowledge.

is perfectly consistent with, and can alone be reasonably defended by, the most jealous caution as to particular points of similarity.

Let us now attend to the passage in M. Ouvaroff, so liberally praised by Mr. Christie.

‘ It seems that all religions have had a glimpse of this great truth, the fall of man. It is found in all the theological systems of the globe, and serves as the base of ancient philosophy. In the mythological traditions, it appears sometimes as a principal idea, sometimes as an accessory notion. We often discover it under the symbols of combat, of grief; at other times under the image of a slain god. Sometimes it is spiritualized; and philosophy then proclaims the degeneracy of the soul, and the necessity of its gradual return to the place which it had occupied. * All moral truths of the first order which connect themselves with that of the fall of man, those first truths immediately transmitted or developed by the Divinity, could not fail to survive the greatest wanderings of the human mind. † The dispersion of nations, the abuse of allegory, the personification of the divine attributes, that of the powers of nature, the confusion of ideas on incorporeal substances, all these principles combined; whilst by degrees they produced polytheism, could not hinder some fragments of the primordial truths from being preserved in the East; and these by a wonderful direction spread themselves afar, traversed Egypt, and, however altered, became in the centre of the ancient world the mysterious doctrine of the *Aporrhete*, and the object of the great mysteries of Eleusis. ‡ —

‘ We must again acknowledge the impossibility of determining, with precision, the notions which the Eopts received; but that connection which we have ascertained between the initiations and the true source of all our knowledge, suffices to prove that they not only acquired from them just notions respecting the Divinity, — the relations between man and the Divinity, — the primitive dignity of human nature, — its fall, — the immortality of the soul, — the means of its return towards God, and finally, another order of things after death, — but that traditions were imparted to them, *oral* and even *written*, precious remains of the great shipwreck of humanity. We know as a fact, that the hierophant communicated to the Eopts certain sacred books, which none but the initiated could read. ‡ And it appears, from what Pausanias relates of the Pheneatæ, that some writings were preserved between stones called *petroma*, (Πέτρωμα,) and that they were never read but during the night. § Perhaps, they united to

* Plat. in Phæd., in Cratyl. Macrob. Somn. Scip. 1—9. Clem. Strom. iii. p. 433.

† Mem. de l’Acad. des Inscript. tom. xxxv. p. 171—188.

‡ Galen. περὶ τῆς τῶν ἀπλῶν φαρμάκων δυνάμεως. l. viii. init.

§ Arcad. p. 249, (viii. 15. It is also the opinion of Meursius, *Eleus. cap. 10.*)

these historical monuments some notions respecting the general system of the universe, some theurgic doctrines, and perhaps even some positive discoveries in human sciences. The residence of eastern traditions in Egypt may have connected them with those great discoveries, this wisdom of the Egyptians, to which Scripture itself bears witness in various places.

Surely it would be difficult, in the whole range of *conjectural antiquarianism*, to find a passage more gloriously hypothetical than either of the above. In the first, on the scanty authorities of Plato, Macrobius, Cicero, and Clemens Alexandrinus*, (referring only, *if they do so refer*, to one particular fact,) we are told that the true history of the origin and fall of man, with all its leading consequences, 'all moral truths of the first order, became, in the centre of the ancient world, the mysterious doctrine of the *Aporrhete*, and the object of the great mysteries of Eleusis'!! — In the second of these memorable paragraphs, we are candidly apprized of 'the impossibility of determining, with precision, the notions which the Eopts received:' but then we are comfortably assured that 'we know it, as a fact, that the hierophant communicated to the Eopts *certain sacred books*, which none but the initiated could read.' Prodigious! Those only who remember the inimitable air and tone with which Mr. Kemble betrayed his consciousness of the *humbug* of Vortigern and Rowena, in the celebrated line,

"And when this solemn mockery is o'er,"

can duly appreciate the above scene in M. Ouviaroff's Eleusinian exhibition.

We return to Mr. Christie; whose *fraternal* feelings (for all who treat of such abstruse subjects, and ever agree, *must* be brothers) have surely misled him in his estimate of the merit of the small portion of this work which has even the shadow of originality about it. For ourselves, it constantly recalls us to our often remembered friend Mr. Jenkinson; — to his *Cosmogony*, and the authorities on which it is bottomed, Ocellus Lucanus, Sanconiathon, Manetho, and Berossus. In the notes to section the third, M. Ouviaroff, in like manner, and as we think with like success, refers us to *Gruter's Inscriptions*, to Plutarch, and to *Selden*. Mr. Christie's first 'Observations' relate to the antiquity of the mysteries; and he differs from M. Ouviaroff in thinking that the silence of Homer on the subject of the mysteries is a

* We beg pardon. The Memoirs of the Academy of Inscriptions are added to this imposing list of *original* authorities.

proof of their not having been instituted in the time of that poet. Mr. C. imagines that the Eleusinian mysteries were of Pelasgic origin, and derived from those in Samothrace which the Pelasgi founded. We are inclined to adopt this opinion; and to regard the antiquities of Samothrace (see D'Hancarville, Montfaucon, and other modern collectors, not for proofs, but for references to original authorities,) as the point of examination most likely to throw light on the mysteries of Eleusis. With regard to Homer, Mr. Christie talks of his deities having arisen from 'a different, and perhaps a later source.' We wish that he had been more explicit on this head. As to M. Ouvoroff, his supposition, that the mysteries were instituted later than the age of Homer, seems to militate strangely against his argument in favour of the *early traditions* which he supposes to have been embodied in the Eleusinian doctrines; for, if those traditions were *generally* afloat in the world so long before Homer, how comes it that he did not fall in with them? Who was more likely than he, which of the numerous *soi-disant* founders of these mysteries had a better chance, to encounter the true story, and to shadow it out in his writings? Mr. Christie says, '*the poet of nature* would have little taste for primitive traditions, or metaphysical doctrines.' We beg permission to deny this, with respect to *primitive traditions*; with which, *as far as he knew them*, the works of Homer are filled; and, as to *metaphysical doctrine*, we are really not sure that the *Nekyia* in the *Odyssey* would have *poetically* excluded *any* part of philosophy, or theology rather, that entered into the creed or the knowledge of the author. Let Mr. Christie review this his decision concerning *the poet of nature*. On the whole, we think that the silence of Homer respecting the Eleusinian mysteries is an unexplained difficulty; and we are even disposed to ask, as to the fact itself, *is he so silent?*

We select a passage from Mr. Christie which will be interesting to the Eleusinian antiquary at least, respecting the Samothracian mysteries, and their analogy with those of Eleusis.

'We may now endeavour to meet a complaint of Mr. Ouvoroff, in an early part of his Essay, that the analogy which subsisted between the mysteries in Samothrace and those at Eleusis has never yet been satisfactorily determined. This analogy will best appear from considering the agents in both of them. The priests at Eleusis were four in number: the Hierophant, the Torch-bearer, the Assistant at the Altar, and the Sacred Herald. They severally bore the symbols of the Demiurgus, the Sun, Moon, and

and Mercury. It is probable, that at first they were actors in a drama. In later times they contented themselves with shewing and explaining the machinery within the temple. *

The Cabiric priests in Samothrace were four. The scholiast upon Apollonius Rhodius has named them Axieros, Axiocersos, Axiocersa, and Casmilus. The scholiast also terms them Ceres, Proserpine, Hades, and Mercury; doubtless he meant to mark their correspondence with these deities at Eleusis. For the Pelasgian founders of the mysteries in Samothrace had no names for the gods, according to Herodotus, who expressed himself as a polytheist; and where no distinction of names obtained, the unity of the Deity was perhaps acknowledged. These Samothracian cabirs, therefore, (as the word *cabir* implies,) were rather powers or attributes than deities. With these may also be mentioned the Idæi Dactyli of the Phrygians, who are said to have received their mysteries from Samothrace about the time of Dardanus. Among these was a personage named Celmis, who, it may be believed, was no other than Casmilus or Camillus. Acmon and Damnameneus were also of their number, if the latter be not two appellations blended together, for Maneus and Acmon were both names of Titanian kings. Thus however it would appear, that Celmis, Camillus, Mercury, and the Sacred Herald, (and I will add Iacchus,) were relative characters.'

Mr. Christie illustrates these abstruse and obscure coincidences by an engraving from an Etruscan vase, which certainly gives a *colour* to his suppositions. We have not room to examine them in detail, but are bound to testify to the great ingenuity of their author. If M. Ouvaroff will take *his* writings for a guide, — encouraged, and inspired, and assisted by Warburton, and founded (as all Eleusinian inquiries must be) on Meursius, and the references of Meursius, — he may yet produce a more *distinct* and *decided* essay on this curious question.

ART. VIII. *An Essay on that Earliest Species of Idolatry, the Worship of the Elements.* By J. Christie. 4to. 6s. Payne and Foss.

THE late work of M. Ouvaroff and Mr. Christie's 'Observations' on that production, have recalled us to the long-neglected 'Essay' of the latter gentleman. An intrinsic value, indeed, attaches to the Essay itself, which did not look for external aid to recommend it to our notice; and we have to apologize, perhaps, for suffering a succession of

* Ἱεροφάντης, ὁ μυσταγωγός, ἱερεὺς, ὁ τὰ μυστήρια διηκνών. Hesych. — "The Hierophant is the mystagogue, or priest, who sheweth the mysteries."

"trifles, light as air," to occupy that attention which was due to the more solid analysis of the claims of fire, water, earth, *and air*, to the divided throne of Heathen idolatry. In plain truth, however, the interest felt by the generality of readers in such profound and far-fetched discussions was always very small, and we believe is hourly decreasing. Learning, therefore, and ingenuity, exercised on subjects of such little comparative attraction, must forgive the delay which sometimes occurs in our record of their labours; —labours which, in their Sisyphean recurrence, are still far from sufficient to comprehend the whole sphere of incessant scribblement, which forms a daily increasing halo round the old bright luminary of English literature. Moreover, Mr. Christie's Essay was put forth so modestly that, to adopt an Hibernian mode of expression, it may be said to have been *published privately*, and to have been scarcely known.

"The star of your god Rimphan, and all the host of Heaven," have suggested to Mr. Christie a new occasion for displaying that singular erudition and acuteness, which we have several times with pride and pleasure commemorated as the peculiar attributes of a fellow-countryman, and a cotemporary. The Essay commences with an ingenious argument, primarily founded on the interpretations of Locke and Whitby, to prove that the "*beggarly elements*," mentioned by St. Paul in his address to the Galatians, had reference to the original principles of Heathen worship: but, omitting so disputable a point, we shall proceed to a passage explanatory of the whole design of this clever little treatise.

'Now, that their idolatrous worship had been originally addressed to the elements is literally true*; and however their polytheism, in later times, might have been designed to personify the attributes of their supreme Jupiter, yet the elements were even then referred to, to represent those attributes. Thus of the Roman great gods (*Dii Consentes*), ten out of twelve were elements; Vesta, Vulcan and Apollo, Fire and Light; Neptune and Jupiter, Water and Rain; Juno, Mercury and Minerva, Air; Diana and Ceres, Earth; Diana representing that element by its animal productions†, as Ceres, by the vegetable:

* This is asserted of the Persians by Herodotus, and of the Egyptians by Diodorus. From the last of these the Greeks received their theology, which their poets disguised and altered; while the Romans derived their religious opinions from Asia Minor, of which Galatia was a province.

† Hence those strangely accoutred figures of the Ephesian Diana, engraved in Montfaucon, and elsewhere.

The remaining two Consentes, Venus and Mars, implied separately, Generation and Destruction, and jointly Nature, or the mutual operation of the other ten. For Nature is no more than the growth and procession of perishable bodies, or that rule of the Deity, according to which all things proceed, under his immediate impulse, and the incessant inspection of his providence.

But to omit any further instances, from people whose mythologies are familiar to every one, and not to anticipate in this place what I shall have to submit respecting those of other more remote, I here content myself with declaring the purport of this Essay, which is to shew, wherefore the elements were referred to by early nations, and likewise to explain what was understood of the Deity by the means of them, and by what misconstruction they became objects of worship. From which exposition, I trust it will appear, that as the elements, or principles of good order formerly established among the Jews, were types or shadows of good things to come*; in the same way also, the mundane elements worshipped by the Pagans were adopted as shadows of good things, either experienced or promised; and that the true record of the one, and the completion, or full assurance of the performance of the other, are to be found in the Holy Scriptures.

Mr. Christie's assertions are generally founded on arguments that are at least plausible, and often on convincing facts: but, before we proceed, we must caution both him and his readers against a disposition that was once very prevalent, and which we should be sorry to see revived: viz. the disposition to refer *every thing* in Pagan antiquity to a scriptural origin; and to search for *systems* of all kinds in that Sacred Book, of which the *principal* and often the *exclusive* object is the history of the rise, preservation, and fulfilment, of the True Religion.

We should in vain endeavour to give a distinct notion of the train of reasoning, or to enable our readers to judge of the validity of the arguments, by which Mr. Christie has discovered a connection between many early systems of mythology, unless we were to quote much more of the Essay than our limits will allow. It would also be necessary to copy his plate of Chinese figures, before we could enter into a strict examination of the soundness of the inferences which he draws from it, in an intelligible manner. We are obliged, therefore, to recur to the less curious and

* Thus much is implied by St. Paul in his use of the word *ορεινη*, in the 25th verse of the IVth chapter of Galatians; when he says, that Sinai is a mountain of Arabia, and *μαωρεστη* (*ορεινη*) to Jerusalem, which now is.

etter known subjects of his remarks, in order to exemplify the style in which he has executed the design announced :

‘ That the use of symbols preceded that of letters, and that the former were devised not earlier than the dispersion at Babel, may be concluded from several considerations. The longevity of man before the flood rendered written records less necessary in those times. The use of a written character would have led to the forming a standard for language, which might have interfered with the merciful dispensation of the Almighty in the dispersion. And the observations of learned men have shewn, that the primitive forms of letters were but the abridged representations of things. So that the precise period at which symbols were invented, seems to be more truly expressed, than actually intended by Diodorus, when he thus affirmed of inarticulate speech : “ At the time when speech was indistinct and confused (*confounded*), they by degrees expressed themselves in a more articulate manner, and appointed symbols to represent the objects under consideration, by which means they were able to explain themselves intelligibly.” *

‘ The use of symbols, therefore, gave rise to letters ; the abuse of them produced idolatry. In tracing the latter, we must consider the principal objects at that time to be recorded, which, doubtless, were the nature of the Deity and his commands, the revelations of his presence, his judgements, and his promises : because, the happiness of man depended on a correct knowledge of these, and on regulating his conduct accordingly. In the second place we may presume, that the selection of symbols would be made from natural objects, as the most evident and intelligible. Thus the nature of the Deity as a spirit might have been symbolized by wind, his presence by fire, his judgements and mercies by water, and his promises by earth and its fruits. The original tradition, of the spirit of God moving on the waters of chaos, and of all things being created by his word, when he said — “ Let there be, and it was,” would have furnished probable occasion for the adoption of the first-mentioned symbol. It is allowed by the best commentators, that the loss of the Schechinah, that visible sign of the presence of the Deity, induced an early respect for solar light, as its supposed substitute. Hence the origin of the worship paid to the sun and the heavenly luminaries. The catastrophe of the flood renders the next supposition credible, and the recollection of the state of bliss in Eden, and of the virtue attributed to its fruits, would have supplied the last.’

The *ulterior* meaning of the word *συγκεχυμενης*, and its *unconscious* use by Diodorus, will perhaps by some be con-

* “ Τῆς φωνῆς δ’ ἀσήμε καὶ ΣΥΓΚΕΧΥΜΕΝΗΣ ἕσης, ἐκ τῆ κατ’ ὄλγον διαδεῶν τὰς λέξεις, καὶ πρὸς ἀλλήλους τιθείας σύμβολα περὶ ἐκάστη τῶν ὑποκειμένων, γνώριμον σφίσι αὐτοῖς ποιῆσαι τὴν περὶ πάντων ἱερμίαν.” Vol. i. “ 12. Ed. Wesseling.”

sidered as fanciful enough ; and when the author explains the different symbols of air, fire, water, and earth, we cannot but observe that his interpretations rest on very unequal grounds of likelihood. The first two have a much more *distinct* analogy than the last two; the nature of the Deity, as a spirit, being well typified, or rather symbolized, by air; and his presence, in reference to the Schechinah, by fire. Yet even here (so little *precision* can attach to these researches,) we cannot but recollect that allusion has been made to the Deity as *present*, "in a still small voice;" and we doubt not that the worship of the Sun, in many cases, whether we follow it to Persian or to Peruvian skies, has proceeded from the simple belief that it was the actual presence, and no *symbol*, no Schechinah, of the God adored. In the two latter interpretations, it is obvious that the symbols might change sides without losing any thing of their *appropriate* resemblance. For instance, we may well ask, why are the mercies of the Deity better represented by water than by earth? Or why should not water imply the *promises* as well as earth, if any thing of scriptural tradition is to be discovered in these symbols? The *promise* relating to water, as recorded by the rainbow, would surely be as probably remembered as any other, and as widely diffused. We see no end to conjecture in these matters: yet still we would not discourage the learned from continuing the investigation; if they miss the game which they pursue, they will not, in the words of Locke, and of Burke after him, "miss the hunter's gratification;" and, finally, from some of the learnedly ransacked regions of Asia *, a light may break out which will effectually illustrate the dark and discordant labyrinth of Heathen mythology.

ART. IX. *Letter to Viscount Sidmouth*, Secretary of State for the Home Department, on the Transportation Laws, the State of the Hulks, and of the Colonies in New South Wales. By the Hon. Henry Grey Bennet, M.P. 8vo. pp. 137. 5s. stitched. Ridgway. 1819.

THE indefatigable author of this *Letter*, whose exertions as Chairman of the Police-Committee in the last Parliament and whose pamphlet on the state of Newgate have rendered his name familiar to our readers, has now turned his atten-

* In referring to Asia, as the general source of mythological knowledge, we beg to be understood as still particularly exhorting an inquiry into the Samothracian mysteries.

tion to the transportation-laws; and in the form of a letter to the noble Lord in whose department the execution of them resides, he has given to the public the result of his inquiries. When it is considered how few persons have the requisite leisure to bestow on engagements which are not strictly personal, — how much smaller is the number of those with time at command, who will withdraw from the attractions of the fashionable world to devote themselves to objects of patriotism, — and when it is remembered that political consequence and temporary popularity are too frequently the inducement of the latter, — the character of that man cannot be too highly appreciated, who, born to rank and affluence, engages actively in a laborious pursuit, which holds out no such promises, but which necessarily makes him acquainted with scenes of disgust and characters of infamy, totally adverse to his feelings and repugnant to his habits.

As in reviewing the pamphlets above mentioned, we have given a summary account of the state of our internal police, and a description of some of the best and the worst of our prisons, we shall follow up the inquiry by shortly stating the manner in which those criminals are treated after trial, whose sentence condemns them in the first instance to transportation; or to whom such punishment is awarded in commutation for that of death, to which they had been adjudged.

The period of punishment commences, in course, from that of their sentence: but some time frequently elapses before the convict is removed from the prison to the hulks, in consequence of a want of accommodation on board of them. This interval was formerly very considerable, but is now greatly diminished with regard to the men; both gaolers and magistrates being desirous of getting rid of their prisoners after conviction. The women, however, being removed only once in a year, are kept in their respective prisons for a long time; and Mr. Bennet states that, in September last, among the women in Newgate who were under sentence of transportation, one had remained there for three years, one for two years and six months, one for two years and three months, two for two years, and one for sixteen months. They who can call to mind the deplorable state of that prison, as containing much of positive suffering, and promoting more of mental depravity, will naturally ask why these women were not removed at an earlier period to their destination; and the fact of many of them being sentenced to transportation for only seven years adds force to the question, and renders the delay less justifiable.

The

The male convicts, on quitting prison, are removed to the hulks; of which there are three establishments: at Portsmouth, the *Leviathan* and the *Laurel*; at Sheerness, the *Bellerophon* and *Retribution*; and at Woolwich, the *Justitia*. Of these, the ships at Sheerness are stated to be on the best plan; and, as our object is to put the question in the fairest point of view, we shall extract Mr. Bennet's account of them.

' The first ship we inspected was the *Bellerophon*, on board of which were 474 convicts divided into three decks, called the upper, middle, and lower decks: through the centre of each runs a passage on each side, in which are the wards for the confinement of the prisoners: the regular complement of each ward is 12, but 14 were in several: the dimensions of the wards are small, and they are very low: each having only one window or port-hole, they are badly lighted and ventilated: the heat was very oppressive; and at night the prisoners must suffer much inconvenience. The mode of dividing the prisoners, for it cannot be called classing, appears to be solely with the view of preserving order on board. When prisoners arrive they are placed on the lower deck, in each of the wards of which two or three steady men are stated to be, in whom the captain can confide: these wardsmen are encouraged to behave well from the hope of their term of imprisonment being shortened. Such of the prisoners as exhibit proofs of good conduct are, after a term of probation, removed to the upper deck, the prisoners confined in which consist consequently of persons in the first stage of amendment; from this another promotion leads to the middle deck, where only those characters are confined, who are considered to be in a state of improvement, and who are encouraged to persevere by the hope of obtaining their pardon. By this plan the several distinctions of crime are confounded: the individual committed for the first offence, and the hardened and experienced thief, become associated, present conduct being (generally speaking) the only consideration which regulates the classification. Of the 474 prisoners, about 320 are employed on shore: they work in gangs of about 12 each. At this time of the year (July) they return to the ship at five o'clock: the school commences at six: about 200 voluntarily attend, when they are exercised in reading and writing, and in moral and religious duties. Prayers are regularly read by the clergyman who lives on board, and twice a week a sermon is delivered. The boys of 15 years of age and under were completely separated from the men: they are confined in four wards in the middle deck close to the chapel, which is also appropriated for the purpose of a school: they are employed as shoemakers, tailors, &c. 52 boys were on board this hulk, of whom 27 were under sentence of transportation for life, nine for 14 years, and the remainder for seven years; — they were under the especial care of the Rev. Mr. Edwards, the chaplain of the ship, who appears to be a judicious, kind-hearted man, and much interested in the welfare of his charge. These boys do not go on shore, but are employed in their respective trade

trades on board the ship : this arrangement is to my mind good — a greater extent of room is alone required to complete the system, as the boys might then be in smaller communities, and classed less indiscriminately.

‘ We next visited the Retribution ; — the arrangements here are similar to those above mentioned. The Batavia hospital-ship was laid along-side, and contained the sick of the two ships : the wards were clean and sweet : the whole appeared to be well managed ; and there were no complaints.’ —

‘ We arrived on board this ship at the time of evening prayers, and had the good fortune to witness one of those examinations which take place once or twice a month. The clergyman, Mr. Price, read the service of the Church of England, after which he catechised the boys and several of the men. This office he regularly performs twice a week. He then called up the boys and men who had recently come there from Newgate, adverted before the congregation to the crimes of which they have been guilty, and exacted from them thus publicly a promise to obey the regulations of the ship. He then called over the names of such who had behaved ill, cautioning them as to their future conduct, praising others who had conducted themselves well, thus holding out censure to the unworthy, and encouragement to those who merited his approbation : the sight was highly gratifying, and the manner of Mr. Price to the boys and men under his care was kind, gentle, and becoming ; — we saw the whole scene perfectly unknown. The Captain admitted us into the gallery during the service — the chaplain knew not we were there, so all we saw and heard may be taken as the accustomed mode of discipline. On board this ship were 37 boys confined as in the Bellerophon, and not working on shore : — they are employed as tailors, shoemakers, coopers, carpenters, bookbinders, &c. One boy brought us a book he had bound, having been at the trade only three months, the workmanship of which was very creditable to him. Another produced a shoe which he had made ; a third presented a tub and a pail as proofs of his progress in his trade as cooper : all seemed healthy and cheerful ; the school was numerously and regularly attended, and many had been taught to read and write, who a few months before were totally ignorant of these acquirements. Among these boys were two little infants from Newgate of nine years of age. These poor children were much pleased to see us — expressed great delight at their change of situation, and spoke of the chaplain as their father. I do not think I was ever more sensibly affected than at this exhibition : the solemnity of the occasion — the nature of the audience — the attention paid during prayers — the sort of anxiety shown by all who might expect to be examined — the honest glow of pride which well-merited praise brought in the cheeks of some, and the shame which was visible in others, satisfied me the chaplain understood the task he had to perform, and had found out the true means by which he was to manage the society, whose reformation it was his duty, if possible, to effect. *The hulks then at Sheerness are much the best I have seen ; but*

even here there are great errors, and those of a nature that ~~must~~ almost altogether prevent the attainment of the object sought after, and baffle all the praise-worthy exertions of the persons at the head of this establishment.'

The most serious evil on board of these ships is the arrangement, by which all convicts above the age of 15 are classed together, and labour together on shore. In one of them were not fewer than 81 between the ages of 15 and 18, who are thus obliged to associate with the men; and Mr. Bennet exhibits the effect of this intercourse by stating the cases of two boys named Leary and Farrel, whom he had long known. They were both of enterprising dispositions, and were 'remarkable for the sharpness of their intellect, — they were associated in their pursuits, habits, and characters, — the means of reformation were repeatedly offered to both, and as often rejected. Leary escaped from the Philanthropic, Farrel from the Refuge: but, when they both left London for the hulks, the probability of reform appeared of the two to be on the side of Leary.' A great change in the appearance of Leary was however now observable; 'his former pleasing manner was quite gone: he was hardened and sullen, and would not raise up his head and look us in the face.'

'Farrel, on the contrary, has distinguished himself by his good conduct since he has been at Sheerness, and the Captain and chaplain of the *Bellerophon* spoke of him in the highest terms of commendation. The prisoners have recently subscribed for a silver medal to record their gratitude to their chaplain, on which is engraved the following inscription: — "This medal is intended to record the unwearied exertions made by the Rev. E. Edwards, chaplain of the *Bellerophon*, to reform the convicts on board that ship, and as a sincere mark of humble respect." On the reverse: "To Hugh Farrel, aged 14, for his uniform and approved good conduct — his faithful recital of several parts of the Holy Scriptures — the church-articles of religion — different homilies, &c."

Mr. B. thus accounts for the improvement of Farrel and the disgrace of Leary:

'The difference of their respective ages, agreeable to the rules above mentioned, has subjected these youths to a different discipline, the former being under 15 was placed in the school with the boys, the latter being above 15 was confined in one of the lower decks with the men, and of course exposed to all the evil resulting from such an association; thus the former has been subjected to a school of moral discipline, the latter to a school of vice; can there be any wonder that both should be known by their fruits, and that Farrel should become better, and Leary worse? Farrel has been under constant inspection, and was prob-

ably

bably impelled by the same love of distinction above his companions, which placed him heretofore at the head of a band of juvenile delinquents; — to gain this distinction here, he must be better than those with whom he lived; thus he became studious, attentive, and regular, and is now as much the leader in reformation as he was formerly in the enterprises of vice. Leary has had no such advantages, and was placed in a far different school; he too wished to excel and surpass his companions, but they were men experienced in crime, and hardened in their wickedness; — he was daily with them, assumed their habits, learnt their conversation, profited by their instruction, and will, I doubt not, if let loose upon the public, furnish early and convincing proofs of the nature of the education he has received. The history of these two boys tells the melancholy truth, that if the discipline of the hulks saves the child, it ruins the boy of riper years. In one of the ships alone at Sheerness, no less than 81 young persons, between the ages of 15 and 20, were in the same situation as the wretched Leary: — they might all have been instructed — they would probably all have been reformed — they might have acquired habits of industry; — they daily curse the strength that enables them to go to daily labour; and whether they are ultimately sent abroad, or at the expiration of their respective sentences turned out loose upon society at home, they carry with them a knowledge, the wages of which are sin, and the end of which is death. The condition of these youths is indeed most lamentable. In all other situations of life, the law supposes boys of these ages to be placed under tutelage — to live under restraint; not being men, they are neither exposed to their temptations, nor possess their privileges. In the hulks alone, where discipline ought to abound, they are classed as men, punished as men; — boys in age, they are not so in treatment. But at a period of life when the heart is flexible, and the whole character easy to bend and direct, they are exposed in the society of those whose hardened and incorrigible vices have met with the severest punishments of the law. Is this common *humanity*? is it common sense?

Exposure to the public eye, which in the hours of labour the convicts daily undergo, must inevitably tend to self-abasement, and to render the character hardened and desperate. The statements of improvement in the prisoners, which the annual reports presented to parliament contain, are rendered more than doubtful by the fact which Mr. Bennet relates: “On a convict obtaining his discharge, or having worked out his time, he receives from his companions, on quitting the hulk, a letter of introduction to their friends in London, with directions to the public houses they frequent. I have been told so by one who actually received such a testimonial, and who, on his arrival in London, went to the houses so pointed out, and there recognized the faces of old acquaintances — regular established thieves.” The words of Mr. Col-

Mr. Colquhoun also may be fairly used in summing up the account. In his evidence before the Police-Committee, 'he says "that he has seldom or ever known an instance of an individual discharged from the hulks, who has ever returned to honest industry; but that the indiscriminate mixture of criminals which takes place in those establishments renders them complete seminaries of vice and wickedness."

We next come to *the voyage to Botany Bay*: which, in the case of the women, commences on their removal from prison, without the intermediate purgatory of the hulks. It seems that, as soon as the ship clears the river, every officer and sailor selects a woman for his mistress during the voyage. When it is recollected that these women are not all common prostitutes, and that they are destined to compose the principal part of the female society of the infant-colony, and be probably the mothers of its future inhabitants, this practice, by which 'punishment becomes a new source of corruption,' cannot be too severely condemned. Neither is their condition improved at the end of their voyage:

'On their arrival in New South Wales, notice is given to the colony, and the women newly dressed and cleaned are turned upon deck to be chosen like slaves in the Bazaar, or cattle at Smithfield. Though the most reputable and best conducted of these women may be taken as domestic servants, and bringing with them a fair character and recommendation from the captain of the vessel, may be hired as such, yet the greater part of those who are well looking, are taken as prostitutes by the officers of the colony, or by those who have interest with the government to have the priority of selection. True it is, many of these women marry and turn out well. I could furnish a list of persons who are so situated, who having been the mistresses of the captain or officers of the ship, during the voyage, have obtained recommendations on their arrival, are now the mothers of families, and are living in a creditable manner. But these are the great prizes in the lottery; by far the greater part of the women go on the town, live on the town, and subsist in no other way.'

The other women are sent to the government-factory at Paramatta, where the hours of labour end at three o'clock. As no place is appropriated for their abode, they then roam where they please; and 150 of them are obliged to submit to prostitution in order to obtain a nightly lodging, for which they would not otherwise have the means of paying. When their period of punishment is accomplished, these miserable objects have no means of revisiting their native country but by submitting to the same arrangement under which they made their voyage out; unless they are fortunate enough,

as some few of them are, to obtain service in a family which is returning to England. 'If the poor wretch is aged, and has lost all her personal attractions, she is a prisoner for life;' and 'there are many women in these circumstances who would, if they could, quit the colony.'

The manner in which the men are stowed in the ship which transports them is slightly introduced in the 'Post-script' to this letter, and the account is not sufficiently distinct for us to abridge. It seems, however, that Mr. Bennet has personally visited one of these ships; and had indeed must be the condition which will justify him in calling it an 'English slave-ship.' We cannot, therefore, but join in his hope 'that the Baring transport is the last ship that will ever sail from an English port, laden with a similar cargo, and stowed in such a manner.'

On the arrival of a ship with convicts,

'The men are paraded on the deck, or drawn up on shore, and notice being given of their arrival, the officers and settlers who want servants select them; as might have been imagined, the officers are stated to have the first choice, and until these gentlemen have made their selection, no settler, without interest, can obtain a servant; of course this is a matter of favour, and judging from what takes place at home, even supposing no more abuses of office to exist in New South Wales than here, is it uncharitable to conclude, that what is worth money will be bought by money? Governor Bligh informed the Committee of the House of Commons, that when the convicts are sent out, the lists that come with them are very defective, containing only the return of the names of the persons, and not of the offences for which they have been punished, so that the government, entirely ignorant of the crimes of each individual, is consequently unable to place them according to the nature of their offences; all are therefore treated alike, and if any favour be shewn, it may be shewn to the most unworthy. It seems to be generally admitted that the servants to the farming settlers are the best conducted, and in that class are to be found the greatest number of instances of a return to good conduct, and to habits of industry. Whatever number then of convicts who are not thus hired or taken as servants by the officers and settlers, or who have not tickets of leave, are employed in the government-service from six in the morning till three in the afternoon, the remainder of the day they have to themselves, and are loose upon the town. Very contradictory statements are given of the conduct of these men. Governor Bligh considers them to be idle and dissolute; and comparing all the different accounts, it is evident that though some may be sober and industrious, and gain considerable sums of money by their extra labour, yet by far the greater proportion fully warrant the character given of them by that gentleman.'

'Governor

' Governor Bligh states, that in 1807 there were only 166 free men who had never been convicts, whom he considered as competent to serve as jurymen, and to fill any office of trust. That list may be at present more numerous; but in all events the number of respectable families can in no way amount to that which was to be found in North America. The convicts, too, sometimes live five or six together: this arrangement, with the forlorn and deserted condition of the male and female convicts in the employ of government, let loose as they are after the hours of work upon society, the almost entire absence of all inspection, excepting only that of the police rounds, which is uncertain, incomplete, and occasional, can afford no preservative against hatred of work, gaming, drunkenness, licentious manners, and irregular intercourse. What can be the respect entertained for the moral purity of enfranchised felons, who have gained their freedom by working out their punishment? what power can authority hope to hold over a society, where there exists a permanent and general combination to resist its ordinances, and defeat its regulations? yet it cannot ever be forgotten, that however bad and irreclaimable the convicts may be, the testimony of Mr. Collins is decisive against the character of the enfranchised settler. Whatever may be the degree of vice supposed to exist in the convict, he is only half as vicious, drunken, and dissolute as he, who having worked out his time, remains in the colony. He says, that for the first five years, some hopes were entertained that the convicts might be reformed; but as soon as those who had served their time increased to any number, not only did the emancipated indulge in every excess, and perpetrate every crime, but were the chief instigators of all revolt, the receivers of all theft; they furnished hiding places to offenders, and in many instances flying to the savages, stimulated them to acts of outrage, murder, and incendiaries on their less criminal countrymen.'

The convicts whose term of punishment have expired have not unfrequently been detained, because they were not able to obtain a pass from the Governor, which is necessary before a captain can receive them on board; and ' Mr. Collins informs us of many *severe floggings* being inflicted on unhappy persons who have worked out their terms, and who had taken their passage home on board the different ships.' Well may Mr. B. ask, ' by what law, statute or common, was this act done? yet who has been called to account for these atrocities?' Supposing the pass to be granted, the young, the healthy, and the strong, may work their passage home: but what is to become of the aged and infirm? They must, as well as the women to whom we have before alluded, remain prisoners for life; and the infirmities that prevent the former from working their way home, as well as the sex of the latter, will prevent both from deriving any benefit from the grant

of land to which they are intitled on becoming settlers in the colony.

Mr. Bennet enlarges on two other grievances; viz. the assumption on the part of the Governor to levy taxes; and his arbitrary and illegal mandates:—but, as these affect the free settlers more materially than the convicts, we shall not notice them in this place; nor the appointment of pardoned convicts, or convicts whose time has expired, to offices of state and magistracy. The colony seems now to be in too thriving a condition to allow the long continuance of such palpable abuses.

Having thus shortly adverted to the conduct pursued towards the felon, from the time of his conviction to the expiration of his sentence, let us ask all reflecting men whether any endeavours are apparently made towards his reform throughout the whole period, except for the short interval of his being on board the hulks, if he be under 15 years of age? Does the slightest probability appear that he will return to this country with his morals mended, or his character improved;—more inclined to industry;—or with a sincere or indeed any abhorrence of those vices which have first corrupted him? Only one answer, we fear, can be given to these questions; and, therefore, as far as the convict himself is concerned, no benefit is derived from the system of transportation.

Neither does it appear to us that the community at home can receive any beneficial influence from this mode of punishment. The intent of punishment is the prevention of crime. Transportation does certainly stop the progress of the exiled felon: but punishment ought to go farther; it ought to deter others from similar offences. Is this effect likely to be produced by removing the criminals? The absurdity is apparent, as Mr. B. forcibly states it. ‘In order to strike terror at home, criminals are punished abroad; and in order that the people of England may be honest, the dishonest are sent to the Antipodes, as far as possible from the observation and knowledge of those who are to be benefited by their punishment.’ The inequality of this mode of punishment will also prevent its operation in such a way; and more especially the curious fact that it is now become an object of pleasing speculation to the convicted felon. Mr. B. thus ably comments on it:

‘Another great fault of this mode of punishment is its inequality; it is true that most punishments are liable to this capital defect, but none more signally than that of transportation;—it is different to different men, to age, to youth, to the single, to the married, the healthy and strong, — to some it is a punishment, to others

others it is an adventure; but a punishment should be the same thing to all persons and to all times. It is not the real suffering of the criminal that produces the moral effect, it is that which strikes the eye, which fixes itself in the mind, and which is associated with every temptation that leads to the commission of offences. In transportation the sufferings are great to the individual; they are almost unknown to, because they are unseen by, the public: the perils of the sea, the dangers of shipwreck, accidents by fire, the long voyage, the perpetual torture of close confinement; rendered necessary for secure detention, the chances of contagious disease, fatal examples of which have occurred; these matters are not taken into the account by that class of persons who are liable to incur the penalties, who read little, who reflect less, and who are only affected by what is present to their senses; the sad realities of this voyage of misery are not even thought of; illusions of hope and pleasure, and above all, the love of change of place and of travelling, so peculiarly strong in the English youth, all conspire to stifle alarm, and to turn that which the law intends as a punishment, into a cheerful speculation and profitable enterprise. These consequences, a rational person, reasoning *à priori*, might have drawn from the punishment of transportation;—the results answer this expectation. In the first place, the voyage to Botany Bay is disarmed of half its terrors—the settlement is no longer a desert—the colonists no longer perish of famine and diseases, the consequences of famine—the chances of death by contagious complaints are much diminished, (the convicts generally arriving in good health,) thus the real sufferings are diminished, consequently so much of the terror, (if any be excited at all, which I much doubt,) to be struck by the dread of suffering them, is diminished also. The more thriving the settlement, the more frequented;—the more frequented, the more easy the means of escape and return;—the more thriving too, the less terrible. All those who have had an opportunity of witnessing the effect of this system of transportation, agree in opinion, that it is no longer an object of dread; it has, in fact, generally ceased to be a punishment:—true it is, to a father of a family, to the mother who leaves her children, this perpetual separation from those whom they love and whom they support, is a cruel blow, and when I consider the merciless character of the law which inflicts it, a severe penalty; but by far the greater number of persons who suffer this punishment regard it in quite a different light. Mr. Cotton, the Ordinary of Newgate, informed the Police Committee last year, “that the generality of those who are transported consider it as a party of pleasure—as going out to see the world; they evince no penitence, no contrition, but seem to rejoice in the thing, many of them to court it. I have heard them, when the sentence of transportation has been passed by the Recorder, return thanks for it, and seem overjoyed at their sentence: the very last party that went off, when they were put into the caravan, shouted and huzzaed, and were very joyous; several of them called out to the keepers who were there

in the yard, "the first time Sunday we will have a glorious Kangaroo hunt at the Bay," seeming to anticipate a great deal of pleasure."—

'Mrs. Fry spoke, too, of the effects which this system had upon the women in Newgate, and told an affecting story of a poor woman, whose anxiety to join her husband led her to the commission of an offence for which she was executed.'—

'I have now before me a list of 25 young persons, under twenty years of age, who were on board the *Leviathan* last Christmas, under sentence of seven years' transportation; 15 of these were to be sent to New South Wales, 13 of them at their own request. I have also never visited Newgate without being assailed with petitions to the same effect; and not many weeks back, 24 young persons who were confined there, and whose individual ages averaged 22 years, all sentenced for seven years, made a similar application. Thus the severest sentence of the law, next to death, is considered less severe than the milder forms of punishment, and that which is meant to strike terror, and which is the commutation for death itself, is not only practically inflicted for the smallest offences which incur the penalty of transportation, but is even by the convicts themselves an object of choice, and considered not as a punishment, but an indulgence: this is indeed an inversion of all the rules of justice, and could only happen in a country, the penal statutes of which are of the nature that ours are. Can we wonder then that crime increases, that property and life are insecure, that fraud ripens into robbery and murder, that the law ceases to be a terror but to the good, and the punishments of the law produce neither example nor reformation?

'I ask then with confidence, does not this portion at least of the penal statutes require revision? Is it possible with safety to persevere any longer in inflicting punishments, which are neither a terror to the delinquent, nor an example to others?'

We must here close this subject, the interest of which has carried us to a greater length than we had intended; and let us hope that a system of punishment which is productive of no one good effect, — which neither reforms the offender nor deters his undiscovered accomplices, nor in any one respect tends to the diminution of crime, — which is fraught with so many disgusting details, and leads to so much real misery, — will ere long be abolished, as far as it relates to sentences for a less period than for life. It cannot now be seriously asked what mode of punishment shall be substituted, when the benefits of the Penitentiary system have been made so apparent, and are every day more and more acknowledged; and by the appropriation of those sums, which are yearly expended in transporting convicts to New South Wales and maintaining them while there, to the erection of new and the alteration of old prisons; we may rationally hope that this object may be effected without any additional burden being laid on the country.

ART. X. *Human Life*, a Poem. By Samuel Rogers, Esq. 4to.
10s. 6d. Crown 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Murray. 1819.

"Thyrsis, the music of that murmuring spring,
Is not so mournful as the strains you sing;
Nor rivers winding thro' the vales below,
So sweetly warble, or so smoothly flow." *POPE'S Pastorals.*

IN such honest terms of praise, we might, without exaggeration, address the author of the present pathetic and moral poem. It affords a view of 'Human Life' which, although brief, offers ample subject for reflection to the patriot and the philosopher; which awakens the purest and noblest feelings of the heart; which refreshes the taste, wearied and exhausted by the false stimulants of modern poetry; and which revives the hopes of the few remaining admirers of correct and classical composition in England.

To the much larger class of the present readers of poetry, however, we can promise none of their favourite enjoyments in a perusal of this polished little work. Here are no vicious heroes, nor extravagant scenes of violence or of intrigue; no compound of reasoning purity and practical debauchery; no levity on sacred subjects; no mystification of plain and universally acknowledged feelings; no pompous disguise of words to conceal the unmeaning nothingness of the *sense*, by courtesy so denominated; no levelling of poetical diction to the colloquial vulgarisms of the lower orders; and no prosaic abuse of the language of *refined simplicity*. With some few exceptions, all is natural, elegant, and adorned; the nature set off by learning and by practical skill; the elegance unmixed with affectation, and the ornament judiciously subdued: pervading rather than prominent; interwoven throughout, and not occasionally glaring. Of the versification, we shall have to speak separately.

The plan of the poem is soon stated. It is to delineate the progress of a man, such as a man ought to be, from the cradle to the grave. In infancy, beautiful, engaging, and affectionate; in boyhood and youth, adding a thirst for knowledge, and a generous ardour of character altogether, to his other attractions; in manhood, deeply and virtuously attached, and married:—then the active citizen, the impartial magistrate, the husband, and the father; the patriot unjustly accused; the victorious soldier in civil tumults, and ever on the *best* side of his country; the retired agriculturalist and philosopher, and the dying Christian.

Such is the picture which Mr. Rogers has presented, of the highest duties of an Englishman, most energetically performed.

performed. To hold up a model of honourable and disinterested exertion in the cause of humanity is of itself a rare occurrence in our popular works of genius, in the present age: but to array the glowing picture in all the brilliant yet probable lights of imaginary perfection is, we conceive, both a wise and a noble undertaking: for such examples are hourly wanting, to counteract the deadly effect of our lighter literature on our young contemporaries. *They* are indeed deeply indebted to Mr. Rogers, not only as the reformer of their *taste* but as the corrector of their *morals*, which are the consequences and the very children of opinion.

The opening of the poem revives the "Pleasures of Memory" in every English bosom:

' The lark has sung his carol in the sky;
The bees have hummed their noon-tide lullaby.
Still in the vale the village-bells ring round,
Still in Llewellyn-hall the jests resound:
For now the caudle-cup is circling there,
Now, glad at heart, the gossips breathe their prayer,
And, crowding, stop the cradle to admire
The babe, the sleeping image of his sire.

' A few short years — and then these sounds shall hail
The day again, and gladness fill the vale;
So soon the child a youth, the youth a man,
Eager to run the race his fathers ran.
Then the huge ox shall yield the broad sir-loin;
The ale, now brewed, in floods of amber shine:
And, basking in the chimney's ample blaze,
Mid many a tale told of his boyish days,
The nurse shall cry, of all her ills beguiled,
" 'Twas on these knees he sate so oft and smiled."

' And soon again shall music swell the breeze;
Soon, issuing forth, shall glitter through the trees
Vestures of nuptial white; and hymns be sung,
And violets scattered round; and old and young,
In every cottage-porch with garlands green,
Stand still to gaze, and, gazing, bless the scene;
While, her dark eyes declining, by his side
Moves in her virgin-veil the gentle bride.

' And once, alas, nor in a distant hour,
Another voice shall come from yonder tower;
When in dim chambers long black weeds are seen,
And weepings heard where only joy has been;
When by his children borne, and from his door
Slowly departing to return no more,
He rests in holy earth with them that went before.

' And such is Human Life; so gliding on,
It glimmers like a meteor, and is gone!

Yet

Yet is the tale, brief though it be, as strange,
As full methinks of wild and wondrous change.
As any that the wandering tribes require,
Stretched in the desert round their evening-fire ;
As any sung of old in hall or bower
To minstrel-harps at midnight's witching-hour !

We shall not allow any petty objections to particular phrases (which, in truth, are too generally unobjectionable fairly to admit of censure) to diminish our calm reflective pleasure in this passage. Such poetry has the effect on our minds which the sun of an autumnal evening produces on the landscape, when lately obscured and agitated by storms: for storms have long disturbed our poetical atmosphere; and we are happy indeed to escape into a green, quiet valley, where every bough is glittering with refreshing rain-drops, and the air breathes a sweet life on all around. The simple and touching idea of pursuing *the sound of the bells*, through their several announcements of human joy or sorrow, will be generally felt and admired.

The reader is next arrested by a lovely appeal to the warmest feeling of the gentlest hearts:

‘ The hour arrives, the moment wished and feared ;
The child is born, by many a pang endeared.
And now the mother's ear has caught his cry ;
Oh grant the cherub to her asking eye !
He comes . . . she clasps him. To her bosom pressed,
He drinks the balm of life, and drops to rest.

‘ Her by her smile how soon the stranger knows ;
How soon by his the glad discovery shows !
As to her lips she lifts the lovely boy,
What answering looks of sympathy and joy !
He walks, he speaks. In many a broken word
His wants, his wishes, and his griefs are heard.
And ever, ever to her lap he flies,
When rosy sleep comes on with sweet surprise.
Locked in her arms, his arms across her flung,
(That name most dear for ever on his tongue,)
As with soft accents round her neck he clings,
And, cheek to cheek, her lulling song she sings,
How blest to feel the beatings of his heart,
Breathe his sweet breath, and kiss for kiss impart ;
Watch o'er his slumbers like the brooding dove,
And, if she can, exhaust a mother's love !

‘ But soon a nobler task demands her care.
Apart she joins his little hands in prayer,
Telling of Him who sees in secret there !—

And now the volume on her knee has caught
 His wandering eye—now many a written thought
 Never to die, with many a hisping sweet
 His moving, murmuring lips endeavour to repeat.’

We leave such pictures to the uninterrupted contemplation of those who can enjoy them:—but, to complete the “Pair of Portraits,” we shall now give the description of the father’s affection also:

‘ The shepherd on Tornaro’s misty brow,
 And the swart seaman, sailing far below,
 Not undelighted watch the morning-ray
 Purpling the orient—till it breaks away,
 And burns and blazes into glorious day!
 But happier still is he who turns to trace
 That sun, the soul, just dawning in the face;
 The burst, the glow, the animating strife,
 The thoughts and passions stirring into life;
 The forming utterance, the inquiring glance,
 The giant waking from his ten-fold trance,
 Till up he starts as conscious whence he came,
 And all is light within the trembling frame!

‘ What then a father’s feelings? Joy and fear
 Prevail in turn, joy most; and through the year
 Tempering the ardent, urging night and day
 Him who shrinks back or wanders from the way,
 Praising each highly—from a wish to raise
 Their merits to the level of his praise,
 Onward in their observing sight he moves,
 Fearful of wrong, in awe of whom he loves!
 Their sacred presence who shall dare profane?
 Who, when he slumbers, hope to fix a stain?
 He lives a model in his life to show,
 That, when he dies and through the world they go,
 Some men may pause and say, when some admire,
 “ They ate his sons, and worthy of their sire!”’

Would that all parents could be persuaded to discharge such duties to their children; or, at least, to superintend the discharge of them!

In the eight concluding lines of this quotation, the classical reader will trace two poetical references: the former to the fourteenth Satire of Juvenal, and the latter to the sixth book of the *Iliad*.

Passing over the scenes of war and peace, which we omitted also to notice in our short account of the business of the poem, we proceed to the *Trial of the Patriot*;—too soon following his first introduction into the senate!

— ‘In

— ' In Autumn at his plough
Met and solicited *, behold him now
Serving the state again — not as before,
Not foot to foot, the war-whoop at his door, —
But in the Senate: and (though round him fly
The jest, the sneer, the subtle sophistry)
With honest dignity, with manly sense,
And every charm of natural eloquence,
Like Hampden struggling in his country's cause †,
The first, the foremost to obey the laws,
The last to brook oppression. On he moves,
Careless of blame while his own heart approves,
Careless of ruin — (" For the general good
'Tis not the first time I shall shed my blood.")
On thro' that gate misnamed, thro' which before ‡
Went Sidney, Russel, Raleigh, Cranmer, More,
On into twilight within walls of stone,
Then to the place of trial §, and alone ||,

* This is one of the numerous transient allusions to well known historical events, or to works of fancy, which adorn the present poem; calculated, as all the better efforts of poetry ought to be, only for the educated reader.

† Zeuxis is said to have drawn his Helen from an assemblage of the most beautiful women; and many a writer of fiction, in forming a life to his mind, has recourse to the brightest moments in the lives of others.

‡ I may be suspected of having done so here, and of having designed, as it were, from living models; but, by making an allusion now and then to those who have really lived, I thought I should give something of interest to the picture, as well as better illustrate my meaning.

§ Traitor's gate; the water-gate in the Tower of London.

|| This very slight sketch of Civil Dissension is taken from our own annals; but, for an obvious reason, not from those of our own age.

¶ The persons here immediately alluded to lived more than a hundred years ago, in a reign which Blackstone has justly represented as wicked, sanguinary, and turbulent; but such times have always afforded the most signal instances of heroic courage and ardent affection.

¶ Great reverses, like theirs, lay open the human heart. They occur indeed but seldom; yet all men are liable to them; all, when they occur to others, make them more or less their own; and, were we to describe our condition to an inhabitant of some other planet, could we omit what forms so striking a circumstance in human life?

¶ In the reign of William the Third, the law was altered. A prisoner, prosecuted for high treason, may now make his full defence by counsel.

Alone before his judges in array
 Stands for his life : there, on that awful day,
 Counsel of friends — all human help denied —
 All but from her who sits the pen to guide,
 Like that sweet saint who sate by Russel's side *
 Under the judgment-seat. — But guilty men
 Triumph not always. To his hearth again,
 Again with honour to his hearth restored,
 Lo, in the accustomed chair and at the board,
 Thrice greeting those who most withdraw their claim,
 (The humblest servant calling by his name,)
 He reads thanksgiving in the eyes of all,
 All met as at a holy festival!
 — On the day destined for his funeral!
 Lo, there the friend, who, entering where he lay,
 Breathed in his drowsy ear " Away, away!
 Take thou *my* cloak — Nay, start not, but obey —
 Take it and leave me." And the blushing maid,
 Who through the streets as through a desert strayed;
 And, when her dear, dear Father passed along,
 Would not be held — but, bursting thro' the throng,
 Halberd and battle-axe — kissed him o'er and o'er;
 Then turned and went — then sought him as before,
 Believing she should see his face no more!
 And oh, how changed at once — no heroine here,
 But a weak woman worn with grief and fear,
 Her darling mother! 'Twas but now she smiled,
 And now she weeps upon her weeping child!
 — But who sits by, her only wish below
 At length fulfilled — and now prepared to go?
 His hands on hers — as through the mists of night,
 She gazes on him with imperfect sight;
 Her glory now, as ever her delight! †
 — To her, methinks, a second youth is given;
 The light upon her face a light from Heaven!

* *Lord Russel.* May I have somebody write to help my memory?

† *Mr. Attorney-General.* Yes, a servant.

‡ *Lord Chief Justice.* Any of your servants shall assist you in writing any thing you please for you.

§ *Lord Russel.* My wife is here, my Lord, to do it.

State Trials, II.

¶ Epaminondas, after his victory at Leuctra, rejoiced most of all at the pleasure which it would give his father and mother; and who would not have envied them their feelings?

¶ Cornelia was called at Rome the mother-in-law of Scipio. "When," said she to her sons, "shall I be called the mother of the Gracchi?"

Here,

Here, however, we must check our wish to make long and connected extracts; or we shall be insensibly led to transcribe the greater part of the poem. Among the allusions which we have described in the note at p. 311., may be classed that which occurs in the lines just quoted;

'Lo, there the friend,' &c. &c.;

and which, we presume, touches on that incident in the play of Pizarro, on which, whether history justifies it or not, fancy may safely delight to dwell.

Of the detached passages which illustrate the poem, we would cite, or refer to, the following. The first is a noble tribute to the memory of the great statesman of modern times; the man whose words *must* be quoted, however his principles may be misrepresented, by every candidate for permanent popular favour. It is not the only occasion on which Rogers has stood forth as the worthy encomiast of Fox.*

'And now once more where most he loved to be †,
In his own fields — breathing tranquillity —
We hail him — not less happy, Fox, than thee!
Thee at St. Anne's so soon of care beguiled,
Playful, sincere, and artless as a child!
Thee, who wouldst watch a bird's nest on the spray,
Through the green leaves exploring, day by day.
How oft from grove to grove, from seat to seat,
With thee conversing in thy loved retreat,
I saw the sun go down! — Ah, then 'twas thine
Ne'er to forget some volume half divine,
Shakespeare's or Dryden's — thro' the chequered shade
Borne in thy hand behind thee as we strayed;
And where we sate (and many a halt we made)
To read there with a fervour all thy own,
And in thy grand and melancholy tone,
Some splendid passage not to thee unknown,
Fit theme for long discourse. — Thy bell has tolled!
— But in thy place among us we behold
One who resembles thee.'

We shall not draw aside the veil of manly delicacy, which covers the name here intended: but it is impossible for any one to look long through the heirs of honour in England, without discovering the object of the well deserved, although high, compliment of the poet. We have admired more than once that truly poetical repugnance to bold publicity of praise, which

* The verses on the funeral of that genuine patriot must be in the recollection of all.

† In these monosyllabic lines, the author displays great skill, and produces, without apparent effort, the happiest effect.

marks the present author: who seems justly to shrink from the avowed admiration of living friends, while over the honoured ashes of the dead he pours out, as he ought, all his ennobling panegyric. Thus, when a well-known and duly appreciated Irish patriot is introduced, his name is not *wholly* given; and, when the first of modern English bards is imagined in his youth

— ‘ in the groves of Academe,
Or where Ilyssus winds his whispering stream,’

we still have not his full designation. This is a delicacy which many persons will be incapable of estimating; and buffoons will laugh at it: but it is the more valuable on both these accounts.

We subjoin two or three little sketches:

The Father, in his Walks with his Children.

‘ And, as they wander with a keen delight,
If but a leveret catch their quicker sight
Down a green alley, or a squirrel then
Climb the gnarled oak, and look and climb again,
If but a moth flit by, an acorn fall,
He turns their thoughts to Him who made them all;
These with unequal footstep following fast,
These clinging by his cloak, unwilling to be last.’

The Victim of fearless Affection.

‘ ’Twas thine, Maria, thine without a sigh
At midnight in a sister’s arms to die!
Oh thou wert lovely — lovely was thy frame,
And pure thy spirit as from Heaven it came!
And, when recalled to join the blest above,
Thou diedst a victim to exceeding love,
Nursing the young to health. In happier hours,
When idle Fancy wove luxuriant flowers,
Once in thy mirth thou badst me write on thee;
And now I write — what thou shalt never see!’

This last extract appears to us singularly beautiful.

The Grave of the good Man.

‘ When by a good man’s grave I muse alone,
Methinks an angel sits upon the stone;
Like those of old, on that thrice-hallowed night,
Who sate and watched in raiment heavenly-bright;
And, with a voice inspiring joy not fear,
Says, pointing upward, that he is not here,
That he is risen!’

So much extended have our extracts already been, that we must only refer to several other favourite passages: such as the dreams of the dying Christian, pp. 62, 63.; and many
more

more of minor interest, but of perfect execution. One of these we must particularize as a striking instance of the power by which the poet not only creates a new character for the commonest events, but naturally and even familiarly describes such events without any loss of refinement. Here it is, we think, that the manifest superiority of Mr. Rogers over some of his cotemporaries, who also deal in descriptions of country-life, breaks forth in all its lustre. Like his great predecessor Goldsmith, he continues to unite the distinctness of individual portrait-painting with the beauty and the variety of a general picture: but nothing is *too* minute; nothing, in a word, is Dutch, although all is natural. The other writers, to whom we allude, erroneously imagine that they can be spared all the trouble of selecting particular passages from the great book of Nature, and combining them into an ideal resemblance of their own. In consequence, they actually take Nature and hold her up to a window, and draw her through their thin and brittle paper. This comparison would tempt us into a long train of thought, which we have neither leisure nor inclination to pursue: but we are persuaded that any reflecting person, who keeps the thought long enough before his "mind's eye," will agree in our general conclusions. The passage which led us to the subject is to be found in pages 46, 47.

We must not pass over in silence the splendid address to Cicero, in page 59.; nor omit to notice the genuine delight and advantage which the poet seems to have derived from the noble Treatise on Old Age.

We have not a moment left to bestow on the blank verses relating to the 'Ruins of Pæstum,' or on the 'Boy of Egremont,' two short poems which are subjoined. They are very able efforts in their several styles: but 'Human Life' is a drama of such interest, that it ought not, we think, to have been followed by any other entertainment on the present occasion.

No approbation of the talents of this author, nor any respect for the virtuous sentiments which exalt his poem and are calculated to render it eminently useful, must prevent us from now pointing out what we conceive to be the blemishes in his composition. We would first observe that, with all his dignified and classical feeling of the duties of a poet, the "*arbiter elegantiarum*" of his day, Mr. Rogers has sometimes descended from the high ground on which he might invariably have stood.

"*Serpit humi, cautus nimium timidusque procellæ.*"

The

The gale of modern popularity may indeed be called a *tempest*, too violent to last; and the favourites whom it now puffs up, it will soon most woefully depress,

“ *Arbitrio popularis auræ.*”

Yet of this *tempest* the present author has, for the first time, shewn himself somewhat enamoured; or at all events he is rather afraid of sailing directly in its teeth: wishing, in a word, to

“ Pursue the triumph, and partake the gale.”

To speak without a metaphor, we do not discover the regularity of versification which adorned the “Pleasures of Memory,” in the poem of ‘Human Life.’ It not only contains by far too many triplets for so short a composition, (notwithstanding Mr. R.’s defence of them,) but it betrays an abruptness of pause, an irregularity of rhythm, a running of one line into another, to a vicious excess. We shall not repeat our frequent arguments on this subject, all of which would be confirmed by the former practice of this poet himself. Now, however, in quest of *vigour*, the modern *ignis fatuus* of poetry, he has been led into harshness: in quest of *variety*, superior to his old harmonious changes, he has admitted discords; and, in quest of momentary fame, he has sacrificed a portion of his permanent reputation.

Some of the preceding extracts, carefully examined, will afford instances of these faults*: but we subjoin a few more specific examples.

So apt are kindred defects to associate in the same narrow sphere, that we do not wonder at seeing an obscurity and a too frequent ellipsis of expression in the lines which follow, as well as a want of dignified and flowing versification. At any rate, the interruptions are too sudden and dramatic for the *moral descriptive*.

‘ Our pathway leads but to a precipice :

And all must follow, fearful as it is !

From the first step ’tis known ; but — no delay !

On, ’tis decreed. We tremble and obey.

A thousand ills beset us as we go.

— “ Still, could I shun the fatal gulf ” — Ah, no,

’Tis all in vain — the inexorable law !

Nearer and nearer to the brink we draw.

Verdure springs up ; and fruits and flowers invite,

And groves and fountains — all things that delight.

“ Oh I would stop, and linger if I might ! ” —

* Such, for instance, as the triplet beginning, ‘ And now once more,’ &c. in the lines on Fox.

We fly ; no resting for the foot we find ;
 All dark before, all desolate behind !
 At length the brink appears — but one step more !
 We faint — On, on ! — we falter — and 'tis o'er !

We doubt not that many of our cotemporaries will think that this is *very fine*; and, by the aid of long pauses, frequent starts, folded arms, and a look as if "something more was meant than meets the ear," a common-place string of reflections, not very intelligibly expressed, may be made into sublime and impressive poetry: but we are old-fashioned enough to consider all this as *trick*, and wholly unworthy of the "Bard of Memory;" who had fewer dashes and notes of admiration in the whole of his first work than he has inserted in a few pages of the present. This is the insensible and perhaps unavoidable influence of the times, of which two most prominent features are a *dash* and a note of *admiration*, even on a writer who was most unlikely, *a priori*, to be affected by them in any manner.

"*Uaque suspectâ livorem ducit ab uâ.*"

The line which opens the preceding passage has several parallels in the volume. In long works, no critic would be so fastidious as to object to a *commencing* line, or to the *first* line of a couplet, ending with a trisyllable: but, in shorter efforts, trifles of this nature become of more consequence, and their frequent recurrence certainly offends.

Thus:

- ' And say, how soon, where, blithe as innocent.*
- ' Do what he will, he cannot realize.'
- ' Released, he chases the bright butterfly.'
- ' Like her, most gentle, most unfortunate.'
- ' Young B——n in the groves of Academe.'
- ' Such grief was our's — it seems but yesterday,' &c. &c. &c.

All these are the *first* lines of couplets, and several of them the *commencing* lines of passages. Another blemish is, we think, the too frequent (for such usages may easily be too frequent) occurrence of the double Hudibrastic rhyme: 'musing, infusing,' 'presiding, dividing,' 'sorrow, to-morrow,' and the like, were rarely seen in serious *English* versification, before the day of Mr. Leigh Hunt's "Rimini." Dryden was able to attain a varied harmony without such helps; and who was ever tired with the flow of Goldsmith?

* This line is also involved in its construction. In his aim at condensation, the author has several times *missed perspicuity*. — "*Brevis esse laboro,*" &c.

We could notice ~~some~~ failures in perfect rhythm, such as the trochee substituted in awkward places for the iambus, &c.; but we already dread the *unjust* imputation (we confess our weakness) of hypercriticism. What has induced us to take these liberties with a work of acknowledged excellence? Obviously the wish that it should approach still nearer to perfection. We are persuaded that nothing but an undue compliance with the novel and wrong theories of the day, — nothing but a taint of that spirit which delights to revive all the ruggedness of our earliest versifiers, under the stale pretence of variety, — could have produced results so unexpected in this quarter. It has been adroitly remarked that Mr. Rogers is “the very Fabius Cunctator of poets, and conquers by delay:” but we fear that no *limæ labor* is ever likely to efface these blemishes, because they are the too visible consequences of system and of choice.

De his satis superque. — Let the poet of ‘Human Life’ suffer us, at parting, cordially to thank him again for what we shall ever consider as a most ‘pathetic and moral poem;’ as capable, as any work of taste can be, of fixing the inattentive, of inspiriting the ignoble, and of reforming the profligate; and adding a fresh treasure to the store-house of wisdom, and another bulwark to the citadel of virtue.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

FOR MARCH, 1819.

HISTORY and BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 11. *Lives of the British Admirals*: containing an accurate Naval History from the earliest Periods; by Dr. John Campbell: the Naval History continued to the Year 1779, by Dr. Berkenhout. A new Edition revised, corrected, and the Historical Part further continued to the Year 1780, by the late Henry Redhead Yorke, Esq. Barrister at Law: with the Lives of the most eminent Naval Commanders, from the Time of Dr. Campbell to the above Period, by W. Stevenson, Esq. Eight Volumes. 8vo. 12s. each Volume. Barrington, Harris, &c.

This voluminous work, after having been in the course of printing during several years, is now before the public in a finished shape. It is, as the title states, partly original, and partly a re-publication, the first half being the composition of Dr. John Campbell, so well known in the last age as the chief writer in the *Biographia Britannica*, and the latter half being supplied by different contributors. Of these the first was Dr. Berkenhout, a writer not far posterior to Dr. C.; the recent continuators have been Mr. H. R. Yorke, lately deceased, and Mr. W. Stevenson,

the present Keeper of Papers in the Treasury. Dr. C.'s book was noticed so long ago as the lxiid vol. of the Old Series of our Review; when we observed that his plan was to give first a general sketch of our naval history for a particular period, and to follow it up with biographical notices of the principal Admirals of the age: but from this design his continuators have deviated so far as to omit, in a great measure, the biographical part, and to confine themselves to the naval history. Dr. C. brought down his narrative to the year 1727; Dr. B. continued it to 1779; and Mr. Stevenson has prolonged it to our last naval exploit at Algiers in 1816.

It was in the year 1811 that Mr. Yorke undertook to re-edit the original volumes of Dr. C. and Dr. B., and to continue our naval history to the present time: he commenced his task with ardour, but was prematurely cut off; and he left so few materials, that the chief part of the concluding volumes is furnished by Mr. Stevenson. They may suffice, in their present state, to gratify the impatience of those who wish to possess our naval history, distinct from the general transactions of the country: but, in a second edition, we should expect much more care to be taken with the selection and arrangement. No subject can be more amply intitled to it; and other labours of the surviving editor, which have happened to come under our perusal, make us anticipate a successful execution of the work, if due time be bestowed on it. A biographical sketch of Dr. Campbell is given in vol. i.; and vol. viii. contains a short dictionary of sea-phrases, with some very interesting tabular statements of the progressive increase of our navy since the middle of the 14th century. Many persons imagine that our naval superiority takes date only from the time of Elizabeth: but these documents shew that it is of much older standing, and that in the reign of our Henry V. we were as much distinguished at sea as on shore.

Art. 12. *The History of the British Revolution of 1688-9*; recording all the Events connected with that Transaction in England, Scotland, and Ireland, down to the Capitulation of Limerick in 1691, in the last of these Kingdoms, inclusive. By George Moore, Esq. 8vo. pp. 587. 14s. Boards. Longman and Co.

Mr. Moore is a country-gentleman, who, without figuring in the ranks of parliament, and without being accustomed to the task of composition, has bestowed much laborious research on the circumstances of one of the greatest events of our history. He sets out with some general remarks on the state of public matters previously to the Revolution, describing the gradual approximation of the Stuart family to the Catholic faith until the profession of it became avowed in the person of James II.: he next discusses with considerable minuteness the intrigues and bribery of the ministers of Louis XIV. in London; and he is by no means inclined to join with those admirers of Algernon Sydney who question the veracity of Barillon, and suspect that he appropriated

priated to himself a large proportion of the sums represented in his accounts as paid to our party-leaders. The death of Charles II. (in 1685) gives occasion to an outline of the character of that monarch, exhibited in very severe but very accurate colouring: 'he left,' adds Mr. M., 'all things prepared for absolute government in the reign of his successor.' The narrative then proceeds to relate the arbitrary proceedings of James; the direction of the public hopes to the Prince of Orange; the preparation of the latter for the expedition; the landing and march to London, followed by the flight of James and the definitive change of government. The author's attention is next given to the proceedings of the legislature, the discussions on parliamentary reform, the merits of Locke's *Essay on Government*, and, lastly, to the character of the noted Earl of Shaftesbury; who, though deceased several years before, is introduced on this occasion as our first advocate, in an individual capacity, for a reform of parliament: a circumstance, however, which does not mollify the severity of Mr. M. in appreciating his great delinquencies in other respects.

Considering the Revolution as unfinished while resistance remained in Ireland, the author devotes a large portion of his volume (above 200 pp.) to the military operations there in 1689, 1690, and 1691; viz. the siege of Londonderry, the battle of the Boyne, the sieges of Cork and Athlone, the battle of Aghrim, and finally the surrender of Limerick.

Ireland is the habitual residence of Mr. Moore, and his book contains two digressions or disquisitions which relate to that part of the kingdom: the first (p. 544.) on the insurrection under Charles I., in which the writer vindicates the Catholics, and shews that Hume judged too leniently of the conduct of the English Justices at that time in power: — the second, of still greater interest, is relative to the actual state of Ireland. The extension of commercial intercourse between the two kingdoms, the abrogation of civil inequalities, and a long maintenance of peace, are, in the opinion of Mr. M. as of other reflecting inquirers, the best means of redeeming Ireland from her unnatural state of degradation. In all this we concur: but we must enter our caveat against a favourite motion (p. 569.) of Mr. M. and of the majority of his brother land-holders, that the monopoly of the British market is necessary to the prosperity of Irish agriculture. Let all that has been hitherto done by the corn-laws be allowed to rest in peace: but any farther augmentation of the import-limit, or restriction of supply from the continent of Europe, should be resisted as replete with the most distressing consequences to our manufacturers.

From the local circumstances of his residence, Mr. M. has had much opportunity of comparing the situation of the English and the Irish peasantry. In clothing, lodging, and furniture, the poverty of the latter can hardly be described: but, with regard to food and fuel, they are not more straightened than their humble brethren on *this side of St. George's Channel*. Their fuel is neither coal, as

in England, nor wood, as on the Continent, but turf from their bogs. As to their food, a barrel of potatoes will support (p. 570.) a family of six persons for a month. The potatoe-plant was imported into Ireland above two centuries ago, and has owed its surprising extension in a great degree to the habits of the lower classes; who are too indolent to till the ground, and too indifferent about comforts to forego the gratification of to-day in the trouble of providing for the morrow.

The great fault of Mr. M.'s book is its prolixity: he seems to have written straight forwards, with very little pains in condensing his matter, and no nice discrimination in excluding any portion that was unsuitable for general perusal. With regard to his political views, it would be easy to point out passages (p. 524, &c.) which are far from arguing a thorough insight into the great lessons of history: but we are so well satisfied of the good intentions of the author, that we have declined all controversy, and have confined our notice to a mere outline of his work.

BOTANY.

Art. 13. *Page's Prodromus*; as a general Nomenclature of all the Plants, indigenous and exotic, cultivated in the Southampton Botanic Gardens: arranged alphabetically, as they are considered hardy or tender to the Climate of Britain, under their different Characters of Trees, Shrubs, Herbaceous, &c. The generic and specific Names, after the Linnæan System; with the English Names, Propagation, Soil, Height, Time of flowering, native Country, &c. &c. Also, occasional Hints for their Cultivation. An Appendix, containing selected Lists of Annuals; all the choicest Kinds of Fruit now in general Cultivation; with their Characters, &c.; and a short Tract on the sexual System, from the *Philosophia Botanica* of Linnæus. By William Bridgewater Page, Southampton, Nurseryman, Seedsman, and Florist. 8vo. pp. 279. Boards. Murray. 1818.

This publication is distinctly and modestly stated by the author to be intended as the means of bringing him into notice, and superseding the necessity of making individual applications to those who may have it in their power to send him orders for a part of that rich collection of plants which he has in cultivation. In short, it aims little higher than to be considered as a Gardener's Sale-Catalogue. We could have wished, however, that the writer had chosen a more appropriate title than that of *Prodromus*; which seems to have no reference to the character of the work; unless it be meant that this publication is the harbinger of his future success in business. The division which has been adopted by Mr. Page is entirely that of a practical gardener; the plants being arranged according to the situations which they occupy. The first division contains hardy plants,—the second, greenhouse,—and the third, hot-house plants: with an appendix of annuals, and a very complete catalogue of fruit-trees. In this manner it is obvious that genera closely allied must be frequently separated, and even species of the same genus often placed remote

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from each other: but the author has succeeded in conveying, in a very small compass, much useful information to those who may be engaged in forming gardens, shrubberies, or plantations. In addition to the usual columns given in such catalogues, he has stated briefly the mode of cultivation, the height to which the plant usually rises, the soil or depth of water in which it thrives, and the colour of the flowers: but he has not admitted any notices of the periods at which the numerous exotics now in cultivation were first introduced into this country. We agree with him, indeed, in thinking that information on this last point is rarely correct, and that it cannot be considered as important: but still there is something highly interesting in tracing back, even with a bare approximation to truth, the first appearance in our gardens of those beautiful strangers, many of which are now naturalized in our soil; and it has always appeared to us that the very complete notices on this subject, given by Mr. Aiton, have contributed much to increase the well-merited popularity of his excellent work. Mr. Page has made an attempt to render his publication the more useful to the practical gardener, by offering a few rules to guide him in the pronunciation of the names of plants: but our botanical readers will judge of his success on this head from the following words, *olea*, *lutea*, *rosea*, in which he has marked the penultimate vowel as long. General rules on the subject of prosody are rarely adapted to uneducated men; and the only mode, in which the object can be properly attained, is by an accurate accentuation of the names throughout the indices.

At the conclusion of the volume, we have an attempt to introduce the young gardener to an acquaintance with the Linnæan system, by presenting him with a cursory review of its principles, and of the classes and orders of which it is composed; with explanations of some of the technical terms used in botany. This part of the work, however, is of too brief and imperfect a nature to be serviceable to the beginner; and to those who have already made even a slight progress in the science, it will convey no additional information. To enable our readers to form an opinion of the humble pretensions of Mr. Page as a botanical instructor, we transcribe his introductory paragraph:

‘ Few publishers, of late, but have attempted some inroad upon Linnæus’s arrangement; but as I presume only to follow Linnæus’s system, thinking, perhaps unskilfully, that it has not been much amended by innovation, these his supposed errors are persisted in, except where the oversight is palpable; hoping for pardon, for so doing, as knowing no better.’ P. 265.

We are convinced that this publication will prove highly useful to the mere practical gardener; and it affords a gratifying proof of the increasing taste for botany in this country, that so rich a collection of plants as that of Mr. Page is kept for sale by any individual cultivator. The volume is printed with great neatness, and considerable accuracy; and we have no doubt that it will meet with a favourable reception, although not by any means possessing scientific claims equal to those of the *Epitome* of the *Hortus Kewensis*, or even the Cambridge Catalogue of Donn.

POETRY and the DRAMA.

Art. 14. *High Notions*; or a Trip to Exmouth. A Musical Entertainment, in Two Acts. Performed, for the first Time, February 11. 1819, at the Théâtre-Royal, Drury-Lane. The Dialogue written, and the Overture and Music composed and selected by John Parry. 8vo. 2s. R. White.

Our readers must not form very 'HIGH NOTIONS' of the excellence of this farce, even if we say that there is enough of pleasantry and fun about the '*Trip to Exmouth*' to justify us in recommending a *Trip to the Theatre*. In these serious times, a laugh is too valuable to be slighted, though it be founded on the ridiculous. As the present race of farce-makers do not write for fame, we hope that Mr. Parry will be satisfied when we pronounce that his performance is not *below par*.

Art. 15. *The Revolt of Islam*; a Poem, in Twelve Cantos. By Percy Bysshe Shelley. 8vo. pp. 270. 10s. 6d. Boards. Ollier. 1818.

The wild burst of the French Revolution called out ten thousand corresponding fancies and furies in the human heart; and no department of civil and military life, no branch of science, or region of taste and literature, was untouched or uninfluenced by this general concussion. Not only were politics rhapsodized in the course of that tremendous occurrence, but rhapsodies became political; and in the midst of the gravest ratiocination on the "universal economy," appeared the strangest vagaries of versification, to answer to the Pindaric flights of some unfledged philosopher in government.

A singular compound of all these qualities is presented in the '*Revolt of Islam*.' It is lamentable, indeed, to see the waste of so much capability of better things as the present volume exhibits. The author has many poetical talents, but he does not seem to have rendered a just account of a single one. His command of language is so thoroughly abused as to become a mere snare for loose and unmeaning expression; and his facility of writing, even in Spenser's stanza, leads him into a licentiousness of rhythm and of rhyme that is truly contemptible. His theories also are pushed to so extravagant a length, that no "Theophilanthropist" or "Spencean" of the day would be disposed to follow him into his religious or his political speculations; and his dreams of the perfection of the world, in which the '*eagle of evil*' will finally be conquered by the '*serpent of good*,' partake too much of poetical phrenzy for our comprehension. Mr. Percy Bysshe Shelley seems to be one of those obdurate dreamers, whose imaginations are *hardened* rather than *reproved* by the frequent exposure of their follies; and he goes on rhyming without reason, and reasoning without rhyme, in spite of the manifest advantages of education and society which his work displays. We subjoin a specimen of this *demi-maniac* composition:

' My brain began to fail when the fourth morn
, Burst o'er the golden isles — a fearful sleep,

Which through the caverns dreary and forlorn
 Of the riven soul, sent its foul dreams to sweep
 With whirlwind swiftness — a fall far and deep, —
 A gulph, a void, a sense of senselessness —
 These things dwelt in me, even as shadows keep
 Their watch in some dim charnel's loneliness,
 A shoreless sea, a sky sunless and planetless!

* The forms which peopled this terrific trance
 I well remember — like a quire of devils,
 Around me they involved a giddy dance;
 Legions seemed gathering from the misty levels
 Of Ocean, to supply those ceaseless revels,
 Foul, ceaseless shadows: — thought could not divide
 The actual world from these entangling evils,
 Which so bemocked themselves, that I descried
 All shapes like mine own self, hideously multiplied.

Dei meliora piis.

Art. 16. *Elegy, supposed to be written on a Field of Battle.* 8vo.
 pp. 36. 2s. Arch.

In this short effusion, we behold the spirit of humanity and benevolence, but not much poetic inspiration. The general tenor of the author's sentiments may be best illustrated by the quotation from Bishop Watson's Apology for the Bible, which he has selected as a motto for the title-page; "There are many who look upon all war (would to God that all men saw it in the same light) with extreme abhorrence, as afflicting mankind with calamities not necessary, shocking to humanity, and repugnant to reason." In the form of the whole, and in many particular passages, this poem is a direct imitation of Gray's *Elegy in a Churchyard*: but the accommodation of reflections suggested in a churchyard to a different scene is not happy, and the manner of the entire composition is feeble.

Art. 17. *Poems, and Tales in Verse.* By Mrs. Æneas Lamont.
 Crown 8vo. pp. 179. Boards. Ogles and Co. 1818.

These poems are rather of a melancholy and sentimental cast. The tales are only two; one of which is intitled *Elopement, or the Court-Martial*; and the other, *Dympna, an Irish Legend*; both lamentably prosaic and uninteresting. We extract the lines on a *Blush*, to which the first place in the volume is justly assigned, as a favourable specimen of the smaller pieces:

' More lovely than the rose's flush,
 More touching than soft music's charms,
 Is timid woman's feeling blush,
 When aught the conscious soul alarms.

* O Nature! thou, and thou alone,
 Canst soften, melt us, and refine!
 One genuine touch each heart must own —
 Th' enchanting blush is truly thine.

• 'Tis

- 'Tis Love's own eloquence ! which speaks
Directly from, and to, the heart :
Portraying on the modest cheeks
What trembling lips dare not impart.
- For Love cold reasoning still disdains,
Nor waits for words his power to show,
But, potent, rushes through the veins,
Triumphant on the face to glow !
- Bright harbinger from Feeling's source !
Morn's crimson glow, Eve's tints, are fine ;
We feel, we own their beauty's force,
But, ah ! we feel them not like thine !
- Thou speak'st from *moral Beauty's* store,
Speak'st truth and virtue in the heart,
And sentiments deep in its core,
Which language, weak, can ne'er impart.
- O glowing thoughts, and feelings warm !
Ye that the sacred blush inspire,
Quit not, O never quit this form,
Lest Virtue languish and expire !

Art. 18. *The Dragon Knight* : a Poem, in Twelve Cantos. By Sir James Bland Burges, Bart. 8vo. pp. 342. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

In twelve cantos!!! "*Si ulterius ire pergis*," &c. &c. There must be a dragon of a reader indeed, as well as a 'dragon knight,' to get through this *poem*; which, with perfectly good sense, good English, and good versification, still contains nothing that can properly be called *poetry*.

It was once (perhaps twice) prettily said, that "he who is good and disagreeable is guilty of high treason against virtue." So we say that he who writes verses in the nominal measure of Dryden and Pope, and (to a certain small degree) in their language also, but at the same time is wholly deficient in compression, energy, picturesque fancy, figurative expression, and varied harmony, is guilty of something more than petty larceny against good taste in poetical literature.

We are unwilling to be very serious in our reprehension of Sir James Bland Burges, because he is both "melancholy and gentlemanlike" in his compositions; and that he is "musical," also, many passages of the *Dragon Knight* would sufficiently evince: — but all this is not enough. It will not satisfy any lover of sacred "song," to be presented with a well printed octavo of daudling distichs; where 'gentle knights come pricking o'er the plain' in a nauseous sort of abundance.

That our readers may fairly judge of the justice of our censure, we shall present them with short extracts from several parts of the work, and prefix a general title to each quotation, in order to explain the purport of the passage.

Night, and its Accompaniments.

' The gloomy night its zenith now attain'd,
 And death-like silence thro' the castle reign'd :
 No moon-beam quiver'd o'er the turrets grey,
 No star now glanc'd its dimly-twinkling ray,
 The owl no more his bootless chase pursued,
 No more the bat his circling course renew'd :
 'Twas murder's own appropriated hour,
 When only treason, lust, or lawless pow'r
 Th' impoison'd chalice drugg'd, or leapt the fence,
 Weak guard of unsuspecting innocence ;
 Guilt only was awake — Fit emblem sure
 Of that avenging worm, which will endure
 To rack the sinful soul, when time shall die,
 Merg'd in the gulph of dark eternity.'

We have extracted this description as being one of the best of the kind.

The Attack of a Citadel.

' Instant they march'd, and still their course pursued,
 Till mid the gloom the citadel they view'd.
 All in repose seem'd wrapt. With eager haste
 Their ladders 'gainst the walls th' assailants plac'd,
 And Aracynthus, who in danger's post
 Was ever first, led on the daring host,
 When suddenly burst forth a blazing light ;
 The tow'rs, th' embattled walls, the rampir'd height
 Were lind with combatants, whose shouts and cries
 In soul-appalling chorus rent the skies :
 Terrific was their martial shew, and dense
 The range of spears, which form'd a grisly fence
 Against th' invading foe, while on each hand,
 Arm'd with still more tremendous pow'rs, a band
 Jav'ins and darts and rocky fragments vast
 From catapulta and balista cast,
 Or Grecian fires, whose flames of livid hue
 No waters quench, in all directions threw.
 Hurl'd by the foe, prone from the topmost wall
 Crush'd and o'erwhelm'd the leading vet'rans fall ;
 Successive ranks to fill their station rush,
 Successive torrents the bold victims crush,
 When, suddenly, from the expanding gate,
 Like vengeful ministers of ruthless fate,
 Rush'd forth a host, which falling on their rear
 Wrought new dismay and doubled ev'ry fear.'

Familiar Narration.

' " He said, and waiting not for a reply,
 With air of grief demonstrative arose,
 And, warning me 'twas time to seek repose,
 To mine apartment courteously he led,
 Where soon oblivion o'er my senses spread.

" But

“ But soon Gerontes on my slumbers broke,
And thus with air mysterious briefly spoke.
‘ A damsel veil’d, who seeks from thee relief,
Requests admittance and an audience brief.’ ”

The Rencontre.

‘ With strong emotions heav’d his lab’ring breast,
And ill his salutations he express’d
To her, the long sought object of his choice ;
Flush’d was his face and tremulous his voice ;
And he, who ne’er had fear’d his foe in arms,
Stood cow’d and daunted by a lady’s charms.

‘ But brief their converse prov’d.’

The participle ‘ *cow’d* ’ has particular elegance in this passage.

Timidity.

‘ And, dreading all the magic of her sight,
Th’ adieu I durst not risk *I meant to write.*’

Encouragement.

“ *Cheer up,*” he gaily cried, all doubt is o’er,’ &c.

We could largely add to these “ flowers of speech : ” but we here bid farewell to ‘ The Dragon Knight.’

NOVELS.

Art. 19. *Reft Rob ;* or, The Witch of Scot-Muir, commonly called, Madge the Snøover. A Scottish Tale. By the Author of “ Hardenbrass and Haverill,” &c. &c. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Sherwood and Co.

This burlesque of Border-Tales and the Scottish dialect is not unreasonably long, and is executed with pleasantry : but it will scarcely diminish the popularity of those works which it seems intended to parody.

Art. 20. *The History of Julius Fitz-john.* By the Author of “ Hardenbrass and Haverill,” &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1818.

Some laughable scenes are here interspersed with “ Town Jests,” and sly quotations from well-known public orators, which may entertain the reader : but it surpasses belief that Bonaparte, on his return from Elba, should stop in his way to Paris in order to offer polite condolences and counsel to Mr. Julius Fitz-john on the event of his father’s death ; and that he should afterward walk unattended through the streets of Paris to have a little sociable chat with the said Mr. Julius in his lodging. The serious parts of the work are rather heavy ; and, towards the conclusion, all the supernumerary characters are carried off by sudden death, which is not a very skilful contrivance.

Art. 21. *New Tales.* By Mrs. Opie. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

Much variety and amusement will be found in these volumes :
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but, in the tale of the '*Russian Boy*,' this justly celebrated writer departs from her usual practice of inculcating an important moral in every narrative: since this is a tale of fear and sorrow in which we cannot sympathise with the characters, and from which no higher lesson can be learned than the old rule that young ladies in a ball-room must not refuse one partner and afterward dance with another.

The story called '*White Lies*' is more useful and more natural, though it begins with a faulty expression, bordering on an Hibernicism: viz. 'Clara Delancy and Eleanor Musgrave were passing the morning *together alone*.' The misrepresentations which are supposed to be uttered, and the excuses made for them, so much resemble the falsehoods and sophistry that may be found in real life, as to afford an impressive and valuable lesson: but it would be still more convincing if Mr. Davenant, who detects and punishes the 'white lies' of his neighbours, did not himself prevaricate in order to conceal his intention of fighting a duel. (See volume ii. page 182.) 'Let us,' Mr. Davenant and myself I mean, said Fielding, 'enter the pit arm-in-arm, and speak together *as if we were friends*.' — 'And do you, meanwhile,' said Davenant, 'go before us, O'Byrne, and *say we are coming on the best terms possible*.' — 'O'Byrne, *on pretence* of wanting to speak to a friend going abroad, took care to leave the ladies; and Davenant's refusal to accompany them *on account of the lateness of the hour and a bad head-ache*, put the finishing stroke to their suspicions.'

Perhaps the most ingenious and original of these narratives is that which is intitled '*The Confessions of an odd-tempered Man*.' Some persons, who have no real sorrows, supply that *happy defect* in their destiny by encouraging peevish sensibilities and capricious fancies, regardless of the annoyance which they cause to others, if they can enjoy "the luxury of grief" in a gloom of their own diffusing. Mrs. Opie has developed this obliquity of temper with so much skill, that the tale affords not only a profitable example, but an interesting view, not often taken, of the "mingled yarn" of human feelings.

Art. 22. *Marriage*. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Murray. 1818.

With more consideration and condensation, this would have been an excellent novel: but at present some of the pictures are crude and unfinished; the writer having, perhaps, a full conception in her own mind of the characters which she intended to pourtray, but failing to present them clearly before the "mind's eye" of the reader. *Lady MacLaughlan* is one of these undefined personages. It is also marvellous, though very convenient, that *Mary* finds a harp well strung and tuned in an old country-house belonging to a solitary blind lady; and that she meets with hackney-coaches in Bath, where we never yet heard of them. The volumes contain some Scoticisms, vulgarisms, and grammatical errors; as, vol. i. p. 302., 'A quiet family-dinner was as much as they should be up to.' Vol. ii. p. 267., 'I would rather be the fallen *as* the

one to exult over the fall of another.' Vol. iii. p. 13., 'She had not intended to have been *able* for such an exertion.' p. 20., 'After the *expiry* of his mourning.' p. 170., 'Colonel Lennox was not long *of* hearing from her.' p. 236., 'my ear was *smote*,' &c. &c.

Art. 23. *The Fast of St. Magdalen*; a Romance. By Miss Anna Maria Porter. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

A novel by Miss A. M. Porter can scarcely fail to excite interest, but '*The Fast of St. Magdalen*' is not the fair writer's *chef-d'œuvre*. Valambrosa, though an amiable character, is too easily duped; and the reader is tired with continual delineations of the tender passion and its sentimental effects:—but the descriptions of Alpine scenery are beautiful, tasteful, and accurate.

Art. 24. *Sophia*: or the Dangerous Indiscretion, a Tale, founded on Facts. 12mo. 3 Vols. 16s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

A dull tale of revolting villainy, in which scenes of vice are displayed as warnings to inexperienced females, whose safety would be greater in foregoing than in receiving such instruction. The book contains also many improbabilities, some passages which evince great ignorance of modern usages, and some erroneous grammar; as in vol. i. p. 77., '*Sophia had began speaking*;'—p. 181., '*she has not spoke*,' &c. &c.

Art. 25. *The Physiognomist*. By the Author of "*The Bachelor and the Married Man*." 12mo. 3 Vols. 16s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

In this work some characters and passages are obviously imitated from another popular novel, and *Mabel the Prophetess* seems to be born of *Meg Merrilies*: but she has "the inflation of that sybil without her inspiration;" and it is difficult even for romance-readers to imagine that the same person is at different times a beauty, a warrior, a mad woman, a prophetess, a moody gentleman, a skilful surgeon, and finally a lady again, by the mere *doffing* of coats and cloaks. The *denouement*, also, is tedious and confused; and, on the whole, this novel has less merit than the writer's earlier performance.

Art. 26. *Woman*: or Minor Maxims, a Sketch. 12mo. 2 Vols. 11s. Boards. Newman and Co. 1818.

These volumes display acumen and observation; the difference between good humour and good temper is well exemplified in the character of Mrs. Courtney; and, among the "*minor sketches*," those young ladies who hide novels under sofa-cushions, while serious poems elegantly bound are placed in sight as company-books, may not be without parallels. The story of the sick boy, vol. ii. p. 95., is very feelingly told, and other passages of simplicity and pathos might be specified.

A few errors occur, as in vol. i. p. 192., '*the Classical Tour of Mrs. Eustace*;'—p. 193., "*Pastor Fido by Guorini*;"—p. 29., *megeeran*

'*magerean*' for *mezereon*; — p. 264., '*unforgivable*.' — Vol. ii. p. 32., a gentleman is said to have 'a violent fit of *hysterical laughing*;' — p. 43., the garden of an English farmer, supplies *medicines*, and among them '*the tall majestic rhubarb*;' — and p. 156., Mrs. Courtney being tired, is made to complain, that 'she is quite *ennuyeuse*;' but this mistake may be justified by the satirist's assertion that "*Les ennuyés sont toujours ennuyés.*"

POLITICS.

Art. 27. *A short Defence of the Whigs*, against the Imputations attempted to be cast upon them during the late Election for Westminster. 8vo. pp. 30. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

Every man must have viewed the late contest for Westminster with some surprise in one respect, and every friend to the liberties of his country must in that particular have regarded it also with regret. "*A house divided against itself cannot stand.*" We will not say that the Whigs and the Ultra-reformers constitute a *House*, or could ever be supposed to be united as a family: but, differ as they may, they are both adverse to the principles and practices of Tories; and yet, in the hostility which has lately been evinced between them, they have played the cards of their common adversary much more than their own game. What can really be the intentions and hopes of the party who contend for Annual Parliaments, Universal Suffrage, &c., in thus (as far as they can) depreciating the conduct and undermining the influence of the old constitutional Whigs, we will not decide; but, if they think by any such means to transfer from the latter to themselves the confidence and co-operation of the true friend to the legal rights and rational liberties of Old England, we must consider them as visionaries, absurd at least, if not reprehensible; and if they seek to annihilate moderate oppositionists, by substituting for them men whose means would be violence, and whose law would be the "*civium ardor prava jubentium*," we need scarcely say that their designs are as mischievous as we trust their efforts will be fruitless. Let the country, however, "*look to it.*" The gigantically terrible experiment which has been made in France should not, in any of its bearings, be lost upon us. She has had her Ultra-royalists, who would concede or alter nothing; her moderates, who would preserve all that was desirable in principle or sound in operation, but in both would reform all that was neither; and her ultra-demagogues, who would overturn every thing that was established, and try any thing that was new. How unfortunately was the invaluable medium disregarded in the contest! God grant that we may not have contemplated the result without being able to derive advantage from it, as far as things in this favoured island bear any analogy to the former state of France; or may hereafter be forced into such resemblance, by the co-operating influence of ultra-royalists and ultra-demagogues, against the popularity and efficiency of the true constitutionalists. We have been prompted to these remarks by a perusal of the pamphlet before us, the object of which is in part of a nature similar

similar to their tendency. Its author is generally understood to be Lord Erskine, and the internal evidence of that statement is sufficiently strong. It is said to be dictated from a bed of sickness, but bears no marks of that impaired vigour of mental health which the writer fears that it may betray; and it conveys, in a very short compass, a perspicuous defence of the conduct of the Whigs in the most important conjunctures, at and since the Revolution of 1688, from the aspersions thrown on them during the late election. From a production which should be read throughout by all who take an interest in it, and which by its great brevity is particularly calculated for such complete inspection, we are not inclined to quote largely: but we shall beg to transcribe two or three passages.

Speaking of the administration in which Lords Grey and Grenville coalesced, and which union has often been urged as an accusation against the Whig-party, the writer observes:

‘*At that period* all the differences between Lord Grenville and the Whigs had passed by, and the *former only*, a person of acknowledged integrity and talents, having been sent for by the King to form a new administration, the only question to be decided by Mr. Fox and his adherents was, whether, by refusing to accede to its formation, they were to drive Lord Grenville to form one with those exclusively, whose views and opinions they disapproved, or unite with him to form one upon mutual trust and confidence, to pursue the best and safest course for the public security and prosperity, at a very critical period. *This*, I can safely declare to have been the sole foundation of that administration, and that it was faithfully carried into effect. Nor can I see in it any departure from the principles of the Whigs. Could they themselves have formed an administration? Or, if they could, would it have been possible for them to make an attempt to reform Parliament with any rational expectation of success? Some people appear to think, that making a noise, or rather creating uproar and confusion by the useless and hopeless agitation of an important question, is a demonstration of consistency and public spirit; whereas I think it demonstrates nothing but folly. True wisdom waits with patience, for the fulness of time when its ripened projects may be successful, and takes care to lose no part of its force by unnecessary defeats.’

It is farther added, in words which seem to point out the noble author: ‘As to the *facts*, I *cannot* be mistaken; and I can have no interest in giving a false, or too favourable colour to them, being past all the employments or ambitions of the world.’

With regard to the often agitated question of Parliamentary Reform, it is remarked:

‘For my own part, I am of opinion, that the hourly thickening difficulties which have, for a long time, involved and darkened this most important question of national policy, will insensibly be dispelled and cleared away. Every body must now be convinced, that a total change, or, rather, subversion, of the present frame and constitution of Parliament, by *universal suffrage and annual elections*.

elections, can never be imposed upon this country, but through a sanguinary revolution, proceeding from the lowest and most ignorant; and that ought to be a motive with, and encouragement to, the more intelligent part of the public to consider in what manner, and to what extent, unquestionable imperfections and abuses might be removed, which degrade the character of Parliament, and become the most powerful weapons in the hands of wicked men to expose the legislature and government of the country to dangerous disaffection and contempt. The more I have thought upon this subject, the more I have been convinced, that whilst the necessary influence of the crown has the support of the collection and distribution of so great a revenue, with the patronage over such an immense dominion in every quarter of the globe, a well arranged and very considerable extension of the system of representation would produce much less change in the returns of members, than is generally imagined; because many popular elections are now carried against the crown, from a disgust in the people at its monopoly of boroughs that are not free; and I will venture, besides, to foretel, that if Parliament should be disposed, either spontaneously, or in compliance with respectful petitions of the people, to consider favourably this momentous subject, and should fearlessly enact what a liberal policy dictated in an extension of the representation, those gangs of turbulent and almost distracted men, which, more than once, have impelled his Majesty's ministers to suppress them by unpopular suspensions, and even permanent abridgements, of public liberty, would vanish, *of themselves*, like an enchantment; and the libellers of Parliament, always dangerous to public tranquillity, but often innocent of criminal intention, from the mistaken opinion that they are serving their country by the most unqualified exposures of the imperfections and corruptions inseparable from its present structure, feeling rebuked by its recovered dignity, and endeared to it from its wisdom and justice, would become its most faithful supporters, and the publications of a free press the most effectual proclamations of its will, through the affections of a grateful people. This may appear visionary, or, rather, as a kind of delirium, in a person who is dictating from a bed of sickness; but it has always, when in health, been my unalterable opinion, *provided, as I have already expressed it*, it shall be the free spontaneous act of the House of Commons, or through respectful petitions of the people.

After having vindicated the Whigs up to the period of the French Revolution in its commencement, their defender ably and justifiably turns on their accusers, and shews not only the bad consequences of the conduct adopted by the latter themselves at that time, but the important relief which they derived from the exertions of the men whom they now malign.

We recommend the general circulation of this clear, moderate, and concise statement; which is correct in facts, valid in reasoning, and sound in principle.

L A W.

Art. 28. *The Justice Law of the last Five Years*, viz. from 1813 to 1817, both inclusive; being supplementary to the several Treatises on the Office and Duties of a Justice of the Peace, by Burn, Williams, and Dickinson; comprehending the Statutes and decided Cases relating thereto; to the Conclusion of the Session of Parliament of the 57th Year of King George III.; with additional Precedents. By William Dickinson, Esq. Barrister at Law; one of His Majesty's Justices of the Peace for the Counties of Nottingham, Lincoln, Middlesex, Surrey, Kent, and Essex; and Author of "A Practical Exposition of the Office and Duties of a Justice of the Peace," &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 750. 1l. 5s. Boards. Clarke and Sons. 1818.

The object of this work is certainly a very useful one; viz. that of furnishing a volume which may serve as a supplement to any or all of the three treatises on the offices and duties of a justice of the peace, which are generally consulted by magistrates and the profession. There are few heavier taxes on a lawyer's pocket than the frequent necessity of purchasing new editions of works which have become useless by not containing the last decisions of our courts, and the modern acts of our legislature. Placed, therefore, at the mercy of four or five booksellers, who have monopolized this branch of the trade, lawyers must welcome every attempt to diminish an expence to which their profession is specially liable, but which many of its younger members are not very well prepared to meet. We wish, indeed, that the plan pursued in the book before us were more generally adopted; and that, instead of printing nothing but entirely new editions of works in general use, and interweaving the required additions with the old text, appendices were occasionally published, containing such new matter in a form that would give to every purchaser the option of retaining his old copies.

Of the present publication, it is only necessary farther to say that it appears to be executed with sufficient care and skill to answer all the purposes for which it was undertaken; and that many of the notes are extremely judicious, being evidently the result of much practical knowledge.

Art. 29. *A Collection of the several Points of Sessions' Law*, alphabetically arranged; contained in Burn and Williams on the Office of a Justice, Blackstone's Commentaries, East and Hawkins on Crown Law, Addington's Penal Statutes, and Const and Nolan on the Poor Laws; designed to assist Magistrates to refer to these several Authorities; to supply the Clergy with professional Information; and to enable Vestries to transact the Business of their respective Parishes. The Statutes continued to 57 Geo. III. 1817, inclusive. By the Rev. Samuel Clapham, M.A. Rector of Gussage St. Michael, &c. and one of His Majesty's Justices of the Peace for the County of Hants. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 8s. Boards. Butterworth, &c. 1818.

As a mere consulting index to the various works on Justice and Sessions' Law, this work may be very useful to its reverend author's brother-magistrates: but we are by no means prepared to think with him that, 'without question,' it will not be less acceptable to professional men; or that it is calculated to render vestries, and the principal inhabitants of villages, in the transaction of the business of their parishes, independent of the advice and direction of the magistrate. It is an old saying, not without truth in its general application, that "every man who is his own lawyer has a fool for a client;" and they, who in any points of importance venture to act for themselves on no better information than compilations like the present can supply, will soon find a painful verification of this homely proverb.

Serviceable, therefore, as the work may be to magistrates and gentlemen-lawyers in directing them to books of higher authority; (though, indeed, two out of the eight treatises to which reference is made are very poor authority,) we deem it our duty to caution justices, and others, against taking their notions of law from a book in which it is laid down as a broad and general principle that the defamation of women is not an injury for which an action can be maintained; and that no female can institute a suit, in the civil courts, for a compensation for that species of *tort* which consists in a verbal slander on character. This is the law of Mr. Clapham; and it *may be* that of some of the authorities cited in his pages: but we are certain that it is not the law either of England, or of the able, though not infallible, commentator on it to whose work Mr. C. refers, in support of a position which surely could not ever have entered into that learned writer's head, and certainly was never promulgated in his pages. We know, indeed, that no action can be maintained for calling a woman by the most opprobrious term of incontinence which can be applied to the sex, provided that the slander be not reduced to writing: but the prohibition applies as much to the husband of a married woman, as it does to the unmarried female or the widow herself; either of whom, were the words written or printed concerning her, provided that she was of age, could successfully prosecute a suit against her detractor. Her inability to do this, when the words are merely spoken, depends not on any disqualification under which she labours on account of her sex; for in this respect the law makes no peculiar distinction between men and women: but on certain general principles of the law of slander, into the absurdities of which it would be foreign to our purpose here to enter. Without proof of special damage, those principles, indeed, equally preclude a woman from maintaining an action for being called a harlot; a man for being told (without reference to his trade or calling) that he is a rogue, a villain, or a rascal; and even his worship the Justice for being branded as a fool, a blockhead, or an ass.

We state this gross error, and we might without difficulty mention others little less flagrant, with no invidious intention of detracting from any merit which may belong to this general index

of sessions' law, for really it is not much more : but we have felt it our duty to make this specification, in order that the author may see the propriety of getting some professional friend to look over his work for him before it may be again submitted to the public. He has, in fact, added but one to the number of those who have undertaken to write on a professional subject, without having had an opportunity of acquiring competent professional knowledge. The wonder, therefore, is not that he has committed blunders of a technical nature, but that, in metamorphosing the divine into the lawyer, he has fallen into so few on which a severer sentence ought to be passed.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 30. *English Synonyms explained in alphabetical Order* : with copious Illustrations and Examples drawn from the best Writers. By George Crabb, of Magdalen Hall, Oxford. 8vo. pp. 772. 1l. 1s. Boards. * Baldwin and Co.

We have already had occasion to notice several of Mr. C.'s philological productions, of which the last and most considerable was the "Preceptor and his Pupils," Part III., reported in M. R. vol. lxix., and containing critical and etymological illustrations of the most familiar synonyms in the English language. This plan the author has now expanded very considerably; and he has given to the public a bulky volume, containing a very copious list of English synonyms in alphabetical succession. He had not, he says, proceeded far before he found it necessary to restrict himself in the extent of his materials; and to lay it down as a rule to avoid the comparison of words already distinguished by striking features of signification. He has added an authority for each different meaning, on the plan of Johnson's Dictionary; giving a preference to such authors as Milton, Dryden, Addison, Pope, and Johnson. Each head comprizes two, three, or more synonyms classed together; as *conceive*, *apprehend*, *suppose*, *imagine*; and those which have the most general sense and application are regularly placed first. We extract a brief specimen of Mr. C.'s plan.

Relate and *recount* are said of that only which passes; *describe* is said of that which exists: we *relate* the particulars of our journey; and we *describe* the country we pass through. Personal adventure is always the subject of a *relation*; the quality and condition of things are those of the *description*. We *relate* what happened, on meeting a friend; we *describe* the dress of the parties, or the ceremonies which are usual on particular occasions.

Works of this kind are sometimes dry, and always laborious to the writer: they are of course intitled, when carefully executed, to rather more than the usual share of favour in a critical journal. We had occasion some time ago (M. R. vol. lxxviii.) to express much satisfaction with an essay on English synonyms by

* A second edition of this work has lately appeared, corrected, and enlarged from 772 pages to 904.

Mr. Tay-

Mr. Taylor of Norwich ; and with regard to the present, though we cannot coincide with Mr. C. in some of his explanations, we consider his book as forming an useful and even valuable addition to the list of such publications on the English language. His research, necessarily very extensive, must have been considerably facilitated by his previous knowledge of German.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We suspect that the writer of the letter from Wennington has decided without adequate consideration and impartiality. If he has exerted his full command of both, we are sorry for his judgment : if he has not, we are sorry for his injustice.

The publication mentioned in the letter from Grove-hall is not intended to be overlooked.

Mr. James has favoured us with a candid communication respecting his military work, noticed in our last Number ; acknowledging many of the verbal improprieties which we pointed out, but stating that others of our objections apply to publications from which he was quoting. He has also furnished us with copies of the official documents transmitted to the American General Wilkinson in February 1813, authorizing him to take possession of the Spanish territory in West Florida, lying west of the Perdido river ; concerning which authority we expressed some conjectural doubts in pages 176, 177. of our review of Mr. J.'s publication.

In consequence of our remarks (Review for February, p. 216, 217.) on Mr. Grinfield's plan for national circulating libraries, that gentleman has obliged us with a specimen of a list of books, which he circulated *for consideration* with this view ; and in which, as he observes, we may give him credit for liberality, since it contains a variety of miscellaneous productions, and does not interfere with either politics or theology. He observes, that he never wished ' that the " National Society " should possess any exclusive power in framing a catalogue, but merely that they should draw one up for such members of the Established Church as had formed schools in their connections ; and in like manner that similar lists should be drawn up among the Dissenters.' — Notwithstanding Mr. G.'s own fairness, however, we fear that our objections would be found applicable in practice.

The work called *The Times* was received ; and will probably be noticed : but its contents are somewhat extra-judicial with us.

We do not find any memorandum of the arrival of Mr. H.'s *Adversaria*, and apprehend that the book did not reach us.



THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1819.

ART. I. *Travels through some Parts of Germany, Poland, Moldavia, and Turkey.* By Adam Neale, M.D. late Physician to the British Embassy at Constantinople, Physician to the Forces, &c. 4to: pp. 308. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co, 1818.

THE extensive peregrination related in this volume took place in the years 1805 and 1806; when the occupation of the Continent by the French army, though not so exclusive as it soon afterward became, obliged those who wished to go by land to Constantinople to follow the circuitous route of Germany, Poland, and Moldavia. Such was the predicament of Dr. Neale; who left London to repair to his station at the Turkish capital in July 1805, taking his passage from Harwich to Husum, and travelling by Hamburgh, Berlin, Dresden, Prague, and Vienna. In this last-mentioned city, hearing that the road by Hungary was extremely disagreeable, he proceeded through Silesia, Galicia, and Moldavia, until he arrived near the confluence of the Pruth with the Danube; where, confiding himself to one of the petty barks of the country, navigated by Greeks, he was carried by water to Constantinople.

Passing over the early part of Dr. N.'s route, which has been so often described by other travellers, we shall make our first halt at Brunn, a considerable town in Moravia, close to which is the famous Austrian fortress of Spielberg. On visiting this prison, the author was surprized at its small size, considering that it is destined for the reception of the majority of criminals in the whole empire of Austria: but, he adds, 'it is a mortifying comparison to make, though not less true, that more crimes are committed within a single English county in twelve months, than throughout the whole extent of Austria in two years.' No documents or calculations are produced in support of this sweeping as well as 'mortifying' statement; and we cannot but doubt whether it be accurate. Our chief inducement, however, for taking notice of Brunn

is to remark its growing consequence as a manufacturing town; the fact being, according to Dr. N., that it is quickly becoming 'the *Leeds* of Austria.' In so commercial a country as ours, a rivalry of this nature in a foreign kingdom is a topic of interest, and we shall therefore quote the present account of Brunn:

'Of late years several manufactories of fine woollen cloths and kerseymeres have been established here, and are now in a very flourishing condition, government having granted to them many important privileges, and being occupied in devising measures for their benefit; so that from the local advantages of the city, the command of running streams, fuel, &c., there is every reason for supposing, that the manufactures of Brunn will both extend and rapidly acquire great repute throughout Germany and Italy. The three principal establishments are those of the Baron de Mund, Mr. Biegmann, and Mr. Offermann. The first named gives employment to upwards of five thousand workmen, and sells cloth annually to the amount of one million of florins, or about one hundred thousand pounds sterling. Mr. Biegmann keeps in pay two thousand two hundred workmen. In the works under the management of Mr. Offermann, the scissars for shearing the broad cloth are set in motion by water wheels: one wheel driving ten pairs of shears. The articles fabricated, consist of swan-skins, rattines, and kerseymeres. In the work-shops belonging to M. Seitter are also made Turkish bonnets or calpacs, which are sent to Constantinople, Salonica, and Smyrna. Dyeing is likewise carried on to a great extent at Brunn: and the colours there produced, are celebrated throughout Germany for their brilliancy and durability. The principal dyer is named Schoelli, and he has amongst his workmen several Englishmen. In his vats they principally dye scarlets. All the broad cloths and kerseymeres woven throughout Moravia, are sent to Brunn to be dyed, coming even from Bochtitz in the vicinity of Znaim, which place alone produces woollen cloths to the amount of several millions annually. The finest of the Moravian kerseymeres are produced at Teltsh, where there are upwards of thirty looms for superfine cloths, ten for kerseymeres, and twenty for coarser woollens. Latterly the English machinery both for spinning and shearing has been introduced there, which has thrown two-thirds of the workmen out of employment, their numbers being reduced from eighteen to six hundred. But the largest woollen factory in Moravia is situated at Machrisneustadt, near Olmütz, where one hundred and eighty looms produce annually cloths to the amount of one hundred and forty thousand florins, or about twelve thousand eight hundred and eighty-three pounds sterling. This factory maintains large warehouses both at Vienna and Brunn, and sends goods into Galitzia, Poland, Russia, Hungary, and Transylvania. The Moravian fleeces produce the finest wool known in Austria, but the supply being inadequate, the deficiency is furnished from Russia and Poland, which, in return, carry back large quantities of

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manufactured goods. The establishments for spinning cotton thread are also extending themselves throughout Moravia, where there are upwards of ten mills, besides some in the immediate neighbourhood of Vienna. At Lettowitz, near Brunn, is a manufactory employing two thousand persons, and producing threads to the amount of thirty thousand florins annually, or nearly two thousand pounds sterling. In aid, too, of these infant manufactories of cotton, the dyers of Moravia practise the dyeing of *Turkey* or *madder-red*, and the government has extended to this branch also every possible encouragement. Here is likewise a silk mill, but its size is very small. Thus, within a few years, Moravia has become as industrious as Silesia and Bohemia, and its factories are equal in extent and utility; while its situation is so very central, that it can, with equal facility, send its goods, by means of excellent roads, to the sea-ports of Trieste and Venice, on the Adriatic, or to the fairs of Poland and Russia. Brunn is the centre and emporium of this commerce, which is chiefly transacted by means of four annual fairs, occurring every three months, and continuing four weeks at a time. The goods are carried away on small light waggons, and the roads are kept in good repair. There are no canals, and only one navigable river in Moravia, namely, the Morava or river Murch.

‘The city of Brunn owes its name as well as its importance to the springs of excellent water with which it is surrounded, and which supply its factories and dyeing vats. *Brunn* or *Briun* (Sclav.) signifying a source or spring of water. Two small rivers called the *Schwartz-a* (black water) and the *Swita-a* (white water) arise from these springs, and flow round the town. Its population is about eighteen thousand souls.’

We now proceed to notice the author's observations on the south of Poland. Nothing can be more wretched than the condition of the Polish peasantry, even in the provinces that have been subject for the last forty years to Prussia and Austria. In short, though Dr. N., a native of the sister island, is no stranger to ardent feelings in the cause of national independence, he considers the partition of Poland, and its transfer to more civilized powers, as the most effectual means of redeeming it from barbarism. In Galicia, the administration of justice, the state of the public roads, and other departments managed by the Austrians, have experienced a very visible improvement; while the condition of the natives, as far as it regards their personal exertions or antient habits, is miserable in the extreme.

‘In a country like Poland, where wood is plentiful, and stone, particularly free-stone, very scarce, it may be presumed that log huts are the general dwellings of the peasantry, and that architecture is still in its infancy. In fact every peasant is his own mason. Armed with a hatchet he enters the nearest wood, and having felled such trees as he chooses to select, he carries them

to the area of his future dwelling, and splits each trunk into two beams. Four large stones mark out the corners of an oblong square, and constitute the basis upon which the hut is raised, by placing the beams in horizontal layers, with the flat sides inwards; a sort of mortice being cut in each about half a foot from the end to receive the connecting beams. A sort of cage is thus formed of small dimensions, generally about twelve feet by six, and moss is thrust in between the logs to exclude the wind and rain. Two openings, however, are left, one of which serves for a door, and the other, with the addition of a few panes of glass or a couple of sheets of oiled paper, forms a window. At one of the corners within, are placed four upright posts, round which are entwined some twigs covered with mud and clay, to form a square area into which is built an oven or furnace of the same materials; this, when hard and dry, serves the peasant for kitchen, chimney, stove, and bed. The roof is closed in with rafters and twigs, bedaubed with a thick coating of clay, and covered over with a close warm thatch, extending over both gable-ends. To finish this rude hut, the walls are sometimes extended a few additional feet in a still rougher style, to form a sort of vestibule, which also answers for a cart-house or stable; and occasionally a second is added to serve as a barn. Perhaps in the whole building, there is hardly a bolt, lock, or hinge, or any article of metal. Yet this is the retreat for a Polish serf, and contains himself and family and all his goods and chattels. If the proprietor happens to be a little more affluent, his hut may contain an oven of glazed earthen-ware, and two bed-rooms with boarded floors, the walls of which are white-washed, and the doors secured with locks. If he be a Jew, the house is still larger, the roof better, and covered with shingles instead of thatch. The windows are a degree wider, and if he be an innkeeper, there is a long stable with a coach entrance at each end, which serves, as in Holstein, for barn, stable, cow-house, and a "lodging and entertainment both for man and beast," as the old sign-posts of our country express it. The gentry give to their wooden houses a greater extent, and a form a little more symmetrical. The walls within may be stuccoed and washed with distemper colours, and the walls externally plastered and white-washed. The door of entrance occupies the centre, and is covered with a rude porch raised on four posts, and the front may perhaps boast three or four windows. Such are the elemental parts composing a Polish village, and nothing under heaven can be more miserable, dirty, or wretched, than the whole assemblage, externally as well as internally. In travelling through Galitzia, all the inns being kept by Jews, we were generally obliged to halt in the Jewish villages. Both inns and post-houses are always situated in the public squares, which occupy the centre of every *miasta* or town. These squares are also the market places for horned cattle, and have never been cleansed out since their first formation: they are perfect quagmires of filth, the putrid effluvia arising from which are almost insufferable.

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The floors of the Polish cottages, consisting of clay, or earth, are always damp, and exhale a perpetual vapour from the heat of the stove: the diet of the working classes consists in a small degree of vegetables, with more of bad bread, and of animal food approaching to putrescence, and an undue quantity of spirituous liquors: the latter are distilled by Jews, and the great land-proprietors deem it their interest to promote the consumption of this baleful stimulant as much as they can. It is in general taken raw, not mixed with water. The bad consequences of such a diet, and of a state of habitual filth, are beyond calculation: not only engendering a number of loathsome and dangerous diseases, but aggravating, in a surprizing degree, the ravages of any contagious malady, such as that which has, during the last two years, been productive of so much mortality in Ireland. A striking though a less melancholy exemplification of the pernicious effects of narrow streets and confined houses is apparent in the number of rickety children found in Hamburgh, and in the curious epithet of *Englische krankheit* (English illness) given to the rickets by the Germans; an appellation which, however inapplicable in the present age, was (we believe) but too well merited previously to the great fire of 1666, when the population of London was crowded into narrow and unwholesome lanes.

It is with much regret that we observe the unfavourable judgment of a medical man, with regard to the position of Constantinople; Dr. N. being of opinion that the maladies frequently occurring in that city, and the extensive ravage caused in it by the plague, are owing not more to the carelessness of the Turks than to the swamps which, for many miles around, infect the atmosphere. Short as was his stay in that capital, his profession afforded him an opportunity of being introduced within the walls of the seraglio, and of taking part in a medical consultation on behalf of a patient of the highest rank. After having adverted to the belief of the Turks in predestination, he adds;

‘ Still, fatalism and apathy have their limits, and the proud infidel, in the hour of sickness, does not disdain to invoke the assistance of the *Giaour* to delay the approach of death. Of this I had a memorable instance within a few days after my arrival at Terapia, when, very unexpectedly, I received a message from the Emperor Selim the Third, to visit his mother the Sultana Validè. Mr. Pisani, the senior Dragoman, was the bearer of this request, and the following morning I set off by water for the seraglio, accompanied by one of the junior Dragomans. We were put ashore at a quay near Baktehi Capoussi, where we found a Bostanji waiting, to conduct us to the house of the principal court physician,

sician, who lived in a narrow street adjoining the wall of the seraglio. On arriving there, we were informed that he had already gone to see his patient, having left instructions that we should follow him, which we did, entering the gardens by the little white gate (*Tauke Chesme Capoussi*) near the chapel of St. Irene. We passed a guard-house of Bostanjies on our left, and then proceeded under an avenue of lofty cypress trees, towards a second guard-house, whence we were conducted to a detached pavilion, in which we found the Hekim Basha, or Turkish physician, Mahmoud Effendi, a Greek physician, named Polychronon, the *Kislar Agassi*, a hideous Ethiopian, the chief of the black eunuchs; the *Hazni Vekili*, also a black eunuch, keeper of the privy purse, and some dervises and muftis. After being introduced, and going through the usual routine of pipes, coffee, sherbet, and sweetmeats, Polychronon conversing in Latin entered into a detailed statement of the malady with which the Sultana was afflicted, namely, an inveterate quartan ague, of upwards of eighteen months' standing. From this she had recovered more than once, but had relapsed as often, owing, in part, to her own want of due caution, and to the officious interference of a set of muftis who beset her, and forced upon her large draughts of iced water, in which they immersed talismans, assuring her that they would establish her convalescence; but on the contrary, these draughts invariably brought back the cold fits of her ague. Upon the last relapse, some days before I saw her, she had, during the cold paroxysm, been suddenly bereft, in her lower extremities, of all power of motion and sense of feeling; and it was upon this point, and some others also, that my opinion was requested. Indeed I was to decide, as I found, between three of her physicians, who called themselves Boerhaavians, and four others, who professed themselves strict Brownonians, as to the expediency of prescribing a cathartic medicine, the former pressing the absolute necessity of such a remedy after five days' constipation, and the latter most foolishly declaring it to be perfectly inadmissible, according to their interpretation of the doctrine of Brown. This being premised, we all accompanied the *Kislar Agassi* to an adjoining kiosk, in which was the Sultana. After exchanging my shoes at the door for a pair of yellow slippers, *papouches*, we entered the royal apartments. On a mattress, or *minder*, in the middle of the floor, was extended a figure covered with a silk quilting, or *Macat*, richly embroidered. A female figure veiled was kneeling at the side of her pillows, with her back towards the door of entrance, and the *Kislar Agassi* beckoned to me to kneel down by her side, and examine the pulse of the Sultana. Having complied with this request, I expressed a wish to see her tongue and countenance, but that I was given to understand could not be permitted, as I must obtain that information from the report of the chief physician. The most profound silence was observed in the apartment, the eunuchs and physicians conversing only by signs. The *Hazni Vekili* then took me by the arm, and turned me gently round,

round, with my face towards the door of entrance, over which was a gilded lattice, concealing the Emperor Selim, who had placed himself there to witness the visit. Our stay in the room did not exceed fifteen or twenty minutes. The four large windows were shaded externally by gilded lattices, and the intervening pannels were covered with mirrors and arabesque tapestry. The divan, which encircled the chamber, was veiled with crimson cloth, richly embroidered with gold, surrounded with cushions of the same description, and the floor was covered with a superb Persian carpet.

‘On our return to the first pavilion, I, of course, coincided with the Boerhaavians, and wrote a prescription to that effect. Indeed, had she been a princess of any other European court, it is probable that a large bleeding would have been decided upon; but from the ignorance and prejudices of her attendants, I found it impossible to convince them of its necessity; and on considering that the mistakes, real or imaginary, of the Turkish court physicians are frequently visited by the bow-string, I had but little inclination to bring the lives of my colleagues into farther jeopardy. The *Hekim-Bachi* and *Hazni Vekili* therefore carried my prescription and interpreted it to the Sultan, who, in return, sent back a complimentary message, and a purse containing one hundred and fifty sequins.’

The Sultana sank under her illness in the course of a week: but her age was seventy-two; and her son, far from giving way to the barbarous practice of punishing the court-physician, signified to him that the event was evidently in the course of nature, and should make no alteration in the confidence which he enjoyed. This prince, deserving of a better fate, was the unfortunate Selim who lost his life by an iusurrection of the Janissaries in 1807.

We have already said that the stay of Dr. N. in the Turkish capital was of short duration: circumstances soon occurred to bring him back to England; and he performed a second land-journey, which, though carrying him nearly over the same ground as the first, enabled him, in occasional deviations, to make additional surveys, and to insert in his journal those remarks that had escaped him in his outward progress. On the score of style, the Doctor can scarcely lay claim to much commendation; his diction being some times inflated, and frequently deficient in precision. He is apt also to give a loose to romantic flights; as (p. 195.) when passing the spot which, with a very good natured confidence in antient legends, he considers as the scene of the Argonautic expedition and of the incantations of Medea. The chief attraction of his book consists in its description of certain countries rarely visited by English travellers, particularly Moldavia. In that extensive province, the villages are generally

built on the banks of small rivers and lakes, or by the sides of fens; a singular choice of situation, and suggested apparently by the primitive inhabitants living much on fish, and the flesh of water-fowl. Not contented with the natural supply of water, the Moldavians intersect their rivers with weirs, which dam the waters and form ponds; and, where the nature of the ground does not admit of these erections, not a village is to be found in the space of twenty miles. The country consists of vast undulating downs called Steppes, covered with luxuriant grass, and affording good nourishment to cattle; this monotonous aspect is interrupted only by the ponds just described, and by the adjacent villages, which are of the most simple construction: the whole without hedges, land-marks, or any divisions of territory. The natives are a rough and hardy race, clad in white woollen or linen, with sheep-skin-caps, and sandals; the whole suggesting the idea of pastoral life in the very infancy of society.

In passing through this province, Dr. Neale adds to his characteristic picture of the people an account of the mode of travelling; which might somewhat alarm those of our countrymen who have been accustomed only to the more disciplined drivers and safer roads of England, but who were meditating to extend their route:

The dress and warlike aspect of the Moldavians is strikingly picturesque, and remains nearly the same as when Hadrian led their forefathers, the Dacians, in triumph to the capitol of Rome, and when the Roman artists chiseled the *basso relievo*, for the pillar of Trajan. The colour of their cap distinguishes them from the Wallachians, whose head dresses are black, while those of the Moldavians are white. Their dialect is as bold and masculine as their looks, composed of words chiefly Latin, but intermixed with Turkish and Sclavonic. These they pronounce with great strength and rapidity of utterance, enforcing their declamation with rude gestures and grimaces. Living like the Tartars as much on horseback as on foot, they inherit the strongest affection for that admirable quadruped; talking, soothing, whistling, or hollering to their horses by starts, during their long and rapid journeys. The moment the postillions have vaulted on their backs, they wave their long whips like slingers around their heads, and giving a loud whoop, the animals set off at full speed over hill and dale, through bog and mire, regardless of the weakness of the carriage springs, the precipices on the sides of the roads, or the lack of courage in the devoted traveller. "Ever and anon" the postillions turn round their faces with a grin, as if in quest of an applauding look, and again urge on their way with increased vigour. If one of their horses knocks up, they turn him adrift from their long rope harness, and drive on with the remainder, for one can be easily spared out of six or eight, their common number. The dis-

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warded animal is left with his two fore-legs fettered to prevent his straying, and on their return they pick him up from the fields. On stopping they imitate the Tartars in wringing the ~~one~~ of their horses, in winter probably to prevent their being frost-bitten, and in summer to ascertain the vigour of the animal: when approaching the post stations, those on the look out give the word, and two or three men scamper off to the uplands, to collect the horses grazing on the steppes, which they drive down with the smack of their whips, like a pack of fox-hounds. The postmaster selects the requisite number, and the rest are then permitted to scamper back in liberty to their extensive pastures.

We may connect this extract with another, descriptive of the *agrémens* of travelling in Prussia; which will afford some additional comfort to such of our readers as in this age of continental excursion are detained, by business or other causes, beside their *Penates*.

‘Bad post-houses, uncivil post-masters, sulky drivers, jaded horses, and most abominable roads, are the agreeable attendants of Prussian posting; the only consolatory circumstance is the recurrence of the large mile stones of red granite, shaped like obelisks, which meet the traveller’s eye from time to time; and announce a hope that he may at length come to the end of these weary stages; it is above all things singular to contemplate the effects of a strictly military *régime* upon the conduct and character even of the civil servants of the government. Protected by his royal livery, the Prussian postillion saunters on at the rate of one German mile an hour, and no bribes, intreaties, or threats, can induce him to exceed the regulation, or spur his horses into a smart trot, even where the roads will permit such a wonderful exertion; with all the provoking phlegm inherent to his character, he grins sardonically in your face, drops his reins on the necks of the rosinante post-horses, and taking out his everlasting *meersch-chaum* tobacco-pipe, his tinder-box, and flint, goes on chipping for half an hour, till he lights the sluggish weed; whiffs the nauseous fumes in your face, mounts or dismounts to arrange his wretched ragged harness, ever and anon cracks his greasy whip, merely to keep himself awake, or puffs harsh discord from the cracked tube of his battered post-horn; and if he ever does venture to urge his steeds, it is only upon the dislocating surface of some ruined causeway, when he hopes to break the springs of your berlin, and delay you at some village where he may drink a triple portion of brandy wine schnaps.’

The engravings in this volume, eleven in number, are very well executed; affording views of towns, such as Dresden, Prague, and Jassy, or remarkable positions, as the lofty castle of Koenigstein on the Elbe, or the promontory of Eneada on the Black Sea.

Art. II. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, for the Year 1818. Part II. 4to. 1l. sewed. Nicol and Son, &c.

MATHEMATICS and ASTRONOMY.

ON the Parallax of certain fixed Stars. By the Rev. John Brinkley, D.D. F.R.S., &c.

On the Parallax of a Aquilæ. By John Pond, F.R.S. Astronomer Royal.

On the Parallax of the fixed Stars in Right Ascension. By the Same.

We take these three articles in conjunction, on account of their intimate relation to each other. Our scientific readers are already informed of the nature of the question at present in agitation respecting the parallax of certain fixed stars. Dr. Brinkley, with an excellent instrument, and after much diligent observation, found a change of place in certain stars, when observed from different parts of the earth's orbit, which might be explained by supposing a parallax to that amount, but on no other principle. This discovery he made known by letter to the late Dr. Maskelyne, and an extract of it was published in the *Philosophical Transactions*. Dr. M.'s successor, Mr. Pond, undertook to repeat Dr. Brinkley's observations, or rather to make another series, in order to ascertain whether the same change could be discovered with the instruments at the Royal Observatory of Greenwich; and the results of the experiments were given in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1817, Parts I. and II. See M. R. vols. lxxxiv. and lxxxv. By referring to these volumes, it will be found that, although Mr. Pond could not positively undertake to state that these stars had no sensible parallax, it seemed highly probable that they had not, because no appreciable change was observable with the Greenwich instruments.

The first of the papers before us may be considered as Dr. Brinkley's reply to Mr. Pond; and its object is to shew that, notwithstanding the great excellence of the instrument employed by the Astronomer Royal, it is not so well suited for the purpose of detecting a parallax, if any such really exists, as that of the Dublin Observatory; although the difficulty of observation is greater in the latter than in the former. This may seem rather paradoxical to many readers, but still such appears to be actually the case. In the Greenwich instrument, the index-error is determined by means of results deduced from observations of stars of the standard catalogue; and it partakes of all the uncertainties of the observed polar distance of refraction, parallax, aberration of light, nutation, semi-annual equation, and annular variation: the

the amount of which, Dr. Brinkley thinks, may be too great to render the supposed parallax appreciable with this instrument. We cannot follow the author through his learned investigations relative to the probable amount of these errors: but we must observe that they are conducted in a manner highly scientific; and that, in the course of them, he introduces considerations relative to certain corrections not hitherto noticed by astronomers, but which the present advanced state of the science seems to require. In concluding this part of his investigation, the Doctor says:

‘ I hope I have so expressed myself, that I shall be understood to mean, that I consider the results of observations hitherto made by the Greenwich circle inconclusive as to the existence or non-existence of parallax, merely from the uncertainty of the elements used in the reductions, not from any errors of the observations, or from any defects in the construction of the instrument.

‘ I more particularly offer to the consideration of astronomers the preceding remarks, as in the present state of astronomy, the relative fitness of instruments for ascertaining with precision the smaller motions, whether real or apparent, of the fixed stars, is an object of importance.

‘ In instruments similar to that belonging to the Observatory of Trinity College, Dublin, the index error is found by reversing the instrument, the position of the vertical axis being ascertained by a plumb line. Thus the determination of the index error is not materially affected by any of the uncertainties above referred to. Therefore, by its principle, this instrument should appear particularly adapted for enquiries relative to the annual parallax, annual variation, &c. &c.

‘ From the fixed telescopes we are probably to look for the final decision of the question of parallax. At first sight these seem to offer a very simple and certain criterion. However, a little consideration will point out probable sources of difficulty. Suppose the star under examination be compared with a star opposite in α , or with one as nearly so as can be conveniently had. Besides the uncertainty respecting the annual variation, even the uncertainty in the quantity of aberration, may tend in some degree to conceal the parallax, unless the minimum of aberration in declination of each star be at the same time, and the observations are made pretty equally on both sides of this time. The star β Aurigæ has been judiciously chosen by Mr. Pond to compare with α Cygni. A more proper star could not have been chosen; yet here the effect of an uncertainty in the maximum of aberration, amounting only to $\frac{1}{4}$ of a second, will have a sensible effect.

‘ If we suppose the maximum only $20''$, as I believe the maximum used by Mr. Pond is $20''\frac{1}{2}$, his winter distance for the observations given would be increased $0''.2$, and his summer distance decreased by about the same quantity; which would make his results differ in the same direction as they should do by the effect of parallax.

parallax. I do not intend by this that any argument in favour of parallax can be deduced from his results, but only to show the effect of small uncertainties.'

The subsequent part of Dr. Brinkley's paper is devoted to the statement of a farther series of observations, and to shew that they still seem to indicate the existence of a parallax, particularly in α Cygni, α Aquilæ, and α Lyræ.

Mr. Pond, in the second of the papers placed at the head of this article, details his observations on α Aquilæ, as compared with ι Pegasi. They were continued from July to December, and he conceives from them that he can discern no parallax in this star. He appears, however, to have come to this conclusion before he had seen the preceding paper of Dr. Brinkley; for, immediately afterward, he remarks:

'After so many fruitless attempts to establish the existence of sensible parallax, I was much disposed to abandon all farther prosecution of this subject, when my anxiety was again renewed by the paper lately communicated to the Society by Dr. Brinkley. The arguments and observations which it contains are such as no doubt require very attentive consideration; but I think some of Dr. Brinkley's doubts have arisen from my not having myself been sufficiently explicit as to the details of my own observations, and the precautions I have used. However this may be, it seemed to me more than ever desirable to institute some new process of investigation, to which none of Dr. Brinkley's objections could possibly apply; and it has occurred to me, that perhaps the observations made with the new transit instrument might be sufficiently exact for this purpose, though taken under very unfavourable circumstances. This was a question to be easily determined by inspection, and I have the satisfaction to state, that I find the observations of α Aquilæ, already made, quite sufficient to establish this important point; namely, that the parallax of this star is either an insensible quantity, or is so extremely small, that it cannot possibly have had any share in producing the discordances observed by Dr. Brinkley.'

The second communication of Mr. Pond relates to the determination of the parallax of certain stars in right ascension, according to a suggestion of M. Delambre; the results of which, as in the former instance, are decidedly against the existence of any sensible parallax. The question, then, from all that has been stated, appears still at issue. It is highly desirable that a third observer might find himself so far interested in the question as to undertake the examination *de novo*: but, unfortunately, there are few instruments which possess the requisite degree of accuracy, to enable us to depend on them when the quantity to be detected is so extremely minute.

Observ-

Observations on the Heights of Mountains in the North of England. By Thomas Greatorex, Esq. F. L. S. — This is beyond all comparison the most unscientific paper that we have seen in the Philosophical Transactions for a long time; indeed, we are entirely at a loss to account for its appearance, as it is so decidedly at variance with the opinions and experiments of some of the most active members of the Society. In the last part of the Transactions, Captain Kater stated that he measured the difference of level between the Royal Society rooms and Mr. Brown's parlour, and found it by the most accurate barometrical measurement to be two feet; whereas the intent of the present communication of Mr. Greatorex is to prove that this kind of measurement is not worthy of reliance, and to endeavour to shew that it will lead to an error of 10 yards, in some cases, out of 300 yards. We by no means design to insinuate that the latter communication ought to have been kept out of the Transactions *because it disagreed with Captain Kater*: but we are surprised, defective as it is, that it should be suffered to appear to contradict those principles on which the computations above mentioned are founded. What must the members of the French Academy think of such a memoir as the present, after the laborious researches of M. Ramond; and what regard can the committee of the Royal Society have for the scientific character of its members, when they give place to such a production? — Let us, however, endeavour to justify our censure by explaining the intent and defect of the memoir in question.

Its intent will be, perhaps, best conveyed in the author's own words:

‘ Having been desirous, for many years past, to revisit the lakes in the north of England, and wishing, when I should be able to take that tour, to make some experiments on one of the mountains in that district, I applied to the late Mr. Ramsden, who made for me the following instruments:

‘ A mountain barometer.

‘ A stationary do. (the mercury of both boiled in the tube.)

‘ A telescope with cross-wires, and a level fitted to it, mounted on a tripod-staff.

‘ And a small theodolite, with compass, &c.

‘ These he assured me were made with the greatest care.

‘ I have this summer passed some weeks in the vicinity of the lakes; and at Keswick I fortunately met with one of those superior self-taught genuses, not uncommon in the North, who entered into all my views, and proved eminently serviceable to me. His name is Otley, and he is a watch-maker, but acts occasionally as guide up the mountains, &c.

'As I wished to measure Skiddaw geometrically down to the average level of Derwent Water, I had a tapering staff made about 28 feet long, shed with an iron point, and very carefully graduated from an accurate standard yard measure, sent from the proper office in London.

'The graduation commenced from a zero about 3 feet from the bottom of the staff, so that from the zero to its top was exactly 25 feet; the top ending in a bluntish point.

'Twelve feet six inches of the upper part of the staff could occasionally be separated from the lower part, both for the convenience of carrying, and in case the wind should prevent the use of the whole length. Small cords were also attached to it, for the purpose of holding it steady and perpendicular.

'We first determined the height of Otley's house above the lake, which was 10 yards, and at this height the stationary barometer was placed; and Mr. Crosthwaite, of the Keswick Museum, undertook to note its variation and that of the thermometer every half hour.'

Mr. G. then proceeds to give an account of his operations, noting the heights of several stations from actual mensuration; the state of the barometer and attached thermometer at each extremity; the computed heights from the barometrical formula of Dr. Maskelyne; and the errors between the actual and the computed heights, as deduced from the formulæ of Maskelyne and Hutton. We cannot immediately refer to the investigation of the formula of Dr. Maskelyne: but those of Dr. Hutton are obviously intended only as very general approximations, and are rather meant to illustrate the nature of barometrical mensurations than to furnish correct formulæ for the purpose. That the Royal Society, therefore, should not have recommended Mr. Greatorex to compare his measured results with more accurate formulæ than either of the above, is to us very singular and inexplicable. It would have been too laborious a task for us to undertake such a comparison, but we were curious to try the effect in one instance, and accordingly selected that case in which the error was the greatest; which is thus stated by Mr. Greatorex:

' 350 yards down. 6 h. 45 m.			
' Barom. below	-	29.987. Therm. 57°.	
Do. above	-	28.150. Do. 47°.	yards.
Measured height	-	-	576.
By Dr. Maskelyne	-	-	566.3645
			error — 9.6355
Dy Dr. Hutton			error — 9.91

The error here is nearly 10 yards.

With

With the above data, and by means of the barometrical formula given by Biot, we made the following computation; the result of which is as remarkable for its accurate agreement with the actual measurement as the former is for its aberration. This formula, reduced to English measure, is

$$X = 60347 \left(1 + \frac{T+t}{900} \right) \log, \frac{H}{h} \text{ feet.}$$

where X is the height sought; 60347 a constant co-efficient; T, t , the degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer *above freezing*; and H and h , the height of the barometer at the lower and upper stations; the latter being first corrected for the expansion of mercury, thus:

$$\frac{T-t}{9742} \times \text{observed height} \pm \text{observed height.}$$

This correction in the present instance gives

$$\begin{aligned} 2850 + \frac{10}{9742} &= 285102 = h \\ \log. H &= \log. 29987 = 1.47693 \\ \log. h &= \log. 285102 = 1.44949 \\ \log. \text{ of } 0.2744 &= -1.43837 \\ \log. \text{ of } 60347 &= 4.78065 \\ \log. \left(1 + \frac{104-64}{900} \right) \text{ or } \log. 1.0444 &= 0.01886 \\ & \quad \quad \quad \underline{3.23788} \end{aligned}$$

$$X = 1729.4 \text{ feet,} \\ \text{or } 576.46 \text{ yards:}$$

that is, the result is within less than $\frac{1}{4}$ a yard of the measured height; while the error shewn by Mr. Greatorex is, as we have stated, nearly ten yards.

That barometrical measurements do not possess the extreme degree of accuracy which some authors would wish us to believe, we are very willing to admit: but that they are so erroneous as they appear from Mr. Greatorex's results, we are equally ready to deny.

On the different Methods of constructing a Catalogue of fixed Stars. By John Pond, Esq. F.R.S. Astronomer Royal. — Mr. P. begins this communication by stating that, according to the method hitherto followed at the Royal Observatory in the construction of catalogues of the fixed stars, either in declination or right ascension, some one star has been taken as a point of departure, and the positions of all the rest have been deter-

determined by comparisons with this alone. The declinations, for example, were determined by direct measurement with γ Draconis, and the right ascensions with α Aquilæ. To this method, however, Mr. Pond objects, principally for the following reason: viz. if the observations of the principal stars, as α Aquilæ, be omitted either from bad weather or from its passing the meridian at an inconvenient hour, or from neglect, then the observations on all the other stars are rendered entirely useless for the purposes of this investigation. Hence arose the necessity of combining the observations of so many years, to construct a catalogue with the accuracy required.

The method now proposed is not to assume any star in particular as the point of departure in preference to the rest, but to take every star in its turn as a point of reference to the others: thus endeavouring, in the first instance, to establish their relative distances from each other on the equator or the meridian; and leaving the choice and determination of some common point of departure as the subject of future consideration. By this mode, the author conceives, he may form a catalogue of any number of stars in one year, as accurately as it could possibly be done in the other way in several years: a conclusion to which he has been led by comparing his catalogue with that of his worthy predecessor. On this point, he observes:

‘ In comparing my catalogue of right ascensions with that of Dr. Maskelyne, I meet with a singular coincidence, which seems to me to illustrate and confirm, in a very striking manner, the advantage of the principle in question. In each catalogue, the right ascension of α Aquilæ, though deduced apparently by a different process, comes out the same, even to the hundredth part of a second. Accident may possibly have some little share in this very exact coincidence, but it appears to me chiefly to arise from the very nature of our respective processes. In Dr. Maskelyne’s method, the right ascension of every star is derived from direct comparison with α Aquilæ, or in other words, the right ascension of α Aquilæ is derived by comparing it with every star. So it is in my method; and hence the same result ought to be obtained. But the advantage which in one case is peculiar to α Aquilæ, is in the other method extended to every star: no possible reason can be given, why the place of one star should be more accurately assigned than that of another, provided an equal number of observations be obtained of each, since the place of every star is deduced exactly in the same manner from a comparison of all the rest.’

Astro-

Astronomical Observations and Experiments, selected for the Purpose of ascertaining the relative Distances of Clusters of Stars, and of investigating how far the Power of our Telescopes may be expected to reach into Space, when directed to ambiguous celestial Objects. By Sir William Herschel, Knt. Guelp. LL.D. F.R.S. — We have recently been called to notice several communications from this veteran observer, which we could not help considering as rather too speculative to be classed among his scientific labours. The present memoir is precisely of the same class; and we therefore but little regret that our limits will not allow us to enter minutely into a detail of its contents. It consists, indeed, principally of observations which cannot be described within the compass of an article in a review.

An Abstract of the Results deduced from the Measurement of an Arc on the Meridian, extending from Latitude $8^{\circ} 9' 38''\cdot 4$, to Latitude $18^{\circ} 3' 23''\cdot 6$, N. being an Amplitude of $9^{\circ} 53' 45''\cdot 2$. By Lieutenant-Colonel William Lambton, F.R.S. 33d regiment of foot. — The figure and magnitude of the earth form doubtless one of the most interesting questions in philosophy; and the ardour with which operations are now carrying on for its determination is equalled only by the importance of the subject. In England, a very considerable arc has been already measured, which in a few years will be completed to the most northern extremity of the British empire. In France, an arc has been carried from the most northern to the most southern point of the kingdom, and thence continued through a part of Spain to the Isle of Formentera in the Mediterranean. In Denmark, corresponding operations are already in a great degree of forwardness; as they are also in Austria. In America, a trigonometrical survey has been for some time in progress; while our countryman, Colonel Lambton, is pursuing the same object in Asia. In the course of a few years, therefore, we may expect to have as correct a map of all the more important parts of the globe as any lord of a manor possesses of his estate; and to have the magnitude and figure of the earth determined with a corresponding degree of accuracy. One of the most equivocal deductions from the measurements hitherto undertaken is the degree of compression of the terrestrial sphere; scarcely any two measurements compared together having given the same results. This was therefore the first object of our inquiry in perusing the present communication from Colonel Lambton; and we were much gratified to find that the question of compression is reducing itself to nar-

rower limits than formerly. The Colonel observes on this subject :

‘ As there are now three distinct sections, whose respective middle points lie in $9^{\circ} 34' 44''$; $13^{\circ} 2' 55''$; and $16^{\circ} 34' 42''$; I have thought it best to take the degrees due to these latitudes, as deduced from actual observation, using each, *first* with the French measure, *then* with the English, and *lastly* with the Swedish measure; and thence obtaining a general mean for the compression at the poles. The *first mean* of these three degrees, used with the French degree, gives the compression $\frac{1}{309,15}$. The *second mean* of the same three degrees, used with the English degree, gives $\frac{1}{313,54}$. And the *third mean* of these three degrees, used with the Swedish degree, gives $\frac{1}{307,19}$ for the compression; so that the mean of these three means will give the compression at the poles $\frac{1}{309,96}$, or $\frac{1}{310}$ nearly of the polar axes; and this has been finally adopted for computing the general tables of degrees from the equator to the pole.’

The above results, brought under one distinct point of view, are as follow :

$$\begin{array}{l}
 \text{‘ By the French } \frac{1}{305,73} ; \frac{1}{306,7} ; \frac{1}{315,03} ; \text{ mean } \frac{1}{309,15} \\
 \text{By the English } \frac{1}{310,28} ; \frac{1}{311,36} ; \frac{1}{318,97} ; \text{ mean } \frac{1}{313,54} \\
 \text{By the Swedish } \frac{1}{305,14} ; \frac{1}{305,72} ; \frac{1}{310,72} ; \text{ mean } \frac{1}{307,19} \\
 \text{Mean of the three} = \frac{1}{309,96} \text{ or } \frac{1}{310}. \text{’}
 \end{array}$$

The question of the compression being once established, and the length of a degree in any latitude being supposed to be known, the length for any other latitude may be computed; and this computation has been made by the author of the present paper, for every third degree from the equator to the pole. He has likewise computed the length of a degree of longitude for each point, and the same for a degree perpendicular to the meridian. As these determinations may be interesting to many of our readers, who may not have an opportunity of consulting the original, we shall transcribe them :

Lat.	Degrees on the Meridian.	Degrees on the Perpendicular.	Degrees of Longitude.
0	60459,2	60848,0	60848,0
3	60460,8	60848,4	60765,0
6	60465,6	60850,1	60516,8
9	60473,5	60852,8	60103,6
12	60484,5	60856,5	59526,7
15	60498,4	60861,1	58787,3
18	60515,1	60866,7	57887,7
21	60534,3	60873,2	56830,0
24	60556,0	60880,5	55628,1
27	60579,8	60888,5	54252,0
30	60605,5	60897,1	52738,4
33	60632,7	60906,2	51080,2
36	60661,3	60915,8	49281,9
39	60690,8	60925,7	47348,2
42	60721,3	60935,7	45284,0
45	60751,8	60946,1	43095,4
48	60782,3	60956,4	40787,8
51	60812,5	60966,5	38367,5
54	60842,1	60976,5	35841,1
57	60870,7	60986,1	33215,4
60	60898,0	60995,2	30497,6
63	60923,7	61003,8	27695,2
66	60947,5	61011,8	24815,7
69	60969,1	61018,9	21867,2
72	60988,3	61025,6	18857,9
75	61005,1	61031,0	15796,0
78	61018,9	61035,8	12690,1
81	61029,9	61039,5	9548,7
84	61037,8	61042,1	6380,6
87	61042,6	61043,7	3194,8
90	61044,3	61044,3	

We have confined our remarks here to the numerical deductions of Colonel Lambton's communications, rather than to the scientific operations by means of which he arrived at them; and with respect to which we shall merely observe, that they are conducted according to the most modern methods of treating these subjects, but that they present no novelty which calls for particular notice.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. III. *An Autumn near the Rhine; or Sketches of Courts, Society, Scenery, &c. in some of the German States bordering on the Rhine.* 8vo. pp. 524. 14s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

THE English public have recently had an ample supply of Tours on the Rhine: but they have been in general delineations of the scenery from Mentz to Cologne, or relations of land-journies from Swisserland along the right bank of the river; while the present author pursues a different course, and takes us into the *interieur* of the minor courts, such as Stuttgard, Carlsruhe, Darmstadt, and Cassel. Descriptions of this kind are seldom attempted by English travellers, both on account of their unacquaintance with the German language and of the haste with which they most commonly traverse the country. The tourist before us, in addition to the capitals above mentioned, visited Frankfort, Rastadt, Mannheim, Worms, Aix la Chapelle, Juliers, Cologne, and other places: but we shall confine our extracts and comments to the German side of the river, and to those points in which the author has the merit of originality in his remarks.

Although the lesser principalities of Germany are by no means so numerous as formerly, they are still very complicated to a foreigner; and many of our readers may be unapprized of the radical distinction between Hesse Cassel and Hesse Darmstadt: the latter being a grand duchy, while the former is called an electorate, though the title is merely nominal, now that no election of emperor takes place. These principalities are governed by families altogether distinct, and even hostile till of late years; when it was agreed to drop animosity, and to build, in token of reconciliation, a bridge over the Maine, which separates the two territories. No sovereign in Germany is more disliked than the old elector of Hesse Cassel, who has been accustomed to barter his soldiers ever since the American war; and, not having at present any such opportunity of augmenting his revenue, he oppresses his people by monopolies and by speculations in corn on his own account. His troops are the great object of his ambition, but even by them he is disliked, because he treats them as mere puppets and takes little concern about their comfort. Expelled by Bonaparte in 1806, and restored by the success of the allies in 1813, he was welcomed back by his subjects, and might have reigned with much popularity if he had followed the example of Louis XVIII., and confirmed such proceedings as were commendable in the acts of the temporary government: but he declared void every
measure

measure taken in his absence, dismissed all the public servants, and degraded to their former rank the officers who had risen in the intervening seven years. Even in Cassel, his habitual residence, the popular dislike to him is as strong as elsewhere, his caprice and avarice being there most conspicuous.

Manners and social Intercourse in Germany.

The ordinary style of visiting in the little capitals is confined to *réunions particulières*, or circles in the evening; dinners being as unfrequent in private houses as they are common and a matter of course at court. This is chiefly owing to the limited fortunes of the nobility, which are by no means adequate to ostentation and solid comfort united. Now the German noble likes both, but gives a preference to the former. The circles in the evening are pleasant and familiar; and you are received with a friendliness which proves that the want of more substantial compliments does not arise from inhospitality. One or two houses of the first nobility or ambassadors are generally open to company every evening: once initiated, you are always welcome. The saloons are open, and tea, made in a family way, by the young *Mademoiselle la Comtesse*, or *La Baronne*, is in progress from seven or eight, till nine or ten. But the want of national topics of common interest is the main cause that gives an insipid frivolity to conversation, equal to all that the decriers of market-towns or genteel villages, in England, can conceive. The Germans are a literary nation; but in the south of Germany, the man of literature is still looked upon as the musty old bookworm whose habits little qualify him for the drawing room; and in the absence of his imposing company, frivolity and dullness reveal. The ladies, in general, barely know the titles of Schiller's works: they have wept over Werter, know something of Kotzebue, and have sometimes studied the poetry and tales in some of the swarms of fashionable almanacks. Politics, which in England are a rallying point among the most stupid, have here no interest. The politics of the *German nation* are too vague, the politics of the *little monarchy* are matters of petty routine, which interest none but *employés* and *chancellery* clerks. The only subjects which come home to all, and which are discussed with lively interest, are the opera of last Sunday, the approaching gala in honour of some travelling highness, speculations as to the length of his stay, and whether he will or will not lodge at the hotel, from being rather too poor to pay the usual 100 louis to the servants of the palace, the prospect of a court mourning, the amours of a great or little prince, or remarks on the recent ennobling of a batch of generals' ladies who (poor souls!) can't speak three words of French. With all the occasional languor and heaviness of the intervals between the stimulating *walks* and the drawing-room games, this society has however one charm which redeems a host of defects, — that of natural good humour and the absence of pretension. The freshness of nature and

simplicity, little improved by cultivation, 'tis true, but little spoilt by affectation, are often to be found here in a higher degree than in more refined and cultivated circles.'

The attention of this traveller was engaged by the court of Stuttgart, and in particular by the young queen, formerly Duchess of Oldenburg; under which title she had visited, as our readers may recollect, London, Oxford, &c. in 1814. This Princess, who was a sister of the Emperor of Russia, and who was cut off by a sudden illness in December last, possessed uncontroled sway over her husband: her plain countenance was animated by fine eyes; her figure was graceful; and her manners were engaging. Her late marriage, unlike most connections in high life, was strictly one of affection, but it lasted only three years. Her surviving partner, though in other respects far from accessible to the gentler feelings, is less unacceptable to his subjects than his father the late King of Wirtemberg, whose severity and even tyranny were proverbial. That monarch's death took place in September 1816; since which period, his widow, formerly our Princess Royal, has resided in retirement at Ludwigsburg, a small town, eight miles distant from Stuttgart. Her mode of life is simple; she keeps early hours, is regular in her attendance on divine worship, passes the morning alone and the evening in the society of her little court, composed entirely of Germans, but occasionally enlivened by English visitors. Her husband was as rigorous in a domestic as in a public character: but her affection for him was not to be shaken, and she attended him in his last illness with unwearied tenderness.

Education in Germany.

'The ordinary plan of education of German boys, from the higher down to all but the lowest classes, is at the public gymnasium, a free school, to be found in every considerable town. They a good deal resemble the grammar-schools in our large towns, except that the ranks of the boys are even more mixed, and the system of education and discipline by no means comparable. The sons of many of the *noblesse* frequent these places of instruction; the more opulent, or judicious, have private tutors in their own houses. Latin and Greek, of course, form a principal part of their instruction: but it is a proof of the defectiveness of the system, that in spite of drilling at the gymnasium, and a residence, at least of two years, at the University, you seldom find a man in the higher ranks, who possesses more than the merest smattering of classical attainments. The professors, and some of the pastors, are almost the only tolerable scholars. The higher classes of the gymnasium are instructed, besides the dead languages, in philosophy, theology,

theology, &c. The boys are placed, on their entrance, in the class for which they appear fit, on a preliminary examination. The *noblesse* rarely send their sons to any but the higher classes, into which a little favour often admits young barons, who are more fitted for the lowest.

Universities. — The German Universities seldom have public buildings in the style of our colleges; at least, the building comprizes only a library and lecture-rooms, the students lodging, without direction or restraint, in the houses of the inhabitants of the town. They are consequently under no compulsion, and little discipline or subordination; the duty of the professor being limited to reading a lecture, and that of the student to paying him for liberty to attend. The plan of these Universities is, in a great measure, uniform; the tuition in each being public, and given in the respective classes of divinity, law, medicine, and philosophy. Each University has public officers, called a rector and pro-rector, with a greater and smaller senate, chosen from among the professors, but exercising very little authority over the students; and, as the latter are very seldom subject to the police of the country, a number of irregularities, approaching to disturbance and riot, are frequently occurring. One of the most serious took place in the last autumn at Göttingen, and required the intervention of the electoral government at Hanover. In late years, a great spirit of independence has found its way among the German youth: but fortunately the oppression of Bonaparte, and the flame of national feeling kindled by it, have lessened provincial distinctions, and have brought into disuse those associations of students from different states which were formerly a perpetual source of quarrel. Theatres are very properly prohibited at most university-towns; because they would be too often a rallying place for the more disorderly students. The young men usually enter at the age of sixteen or seventeen, an attendance of two years at an University being an indispensable preliminary to their admission into the civil service of a prince. They are thus withdrawn from the discipline of school, or of the paternal mansion, at the age when they are least capable of guiding themselves; and these two years are, in general, very unprofitably employed.

The remarkable proceedings that took place among the German students in 1817, in Saxony, at the old castle of Wartburg, (the place of Luther's temporary confinement,) were intended ostensibly to commemorate the Reformation, but in reality to form a deliberative meeting of delegates from different Universities. These ardent youths expressed with-

out scruple their opinion of the ruling sovereigns of Germany; committing to the flames the military pigtail of the old elector of Hesse Cassel, the pad of the Prussians, and the corporal's cane of the Austrians, and concluding the whole by declaring that the Grand-Duke of Weimar was the only prince in the empire worthy of reigning. The works of several writers who were supposed to be adverse to the establishment of free constitutions in Germany were also consigned to the fire; and they even attempted the more questionable measure of establishing a Student's Gazette, in order to extend their principles and assert their rights. Since that time, several of the German governments have strictly forbidden such assemblages: but it is evident that the plant of freedom has taken too deep a root to be stopped in its growth; and that the true remedy for them, or for the more orderly reclamations of the mature part of the inhabitants, is to admit them to participate in the government by representative assemblies. The tendency to this political improvement will be much promoted by the rising importance of the middling class throughout Germany. The gentry are experiencing more and more the effects of leading an unprofitable life at the petty courts of their sovereigns, or holding military rank in a service in which the pay is inadequate to the expence of living; and business of all kinds is in the hands of the middling classes, who, by industrious habits and a progressive increase of the little property of their ancestors, are becoming respected by their rulers, and are even found fitter for public offices. They are thus beginning to acquire in Germany that importance which in this country they have had for a length of time, and in France during the last half century: but, in the drawing-rooms, the German *noblesse* still keep their supremacy, and maintain a lofty tone which is highly amusing to an Englishman. — The author of the present work mentions (p. 252.) that, when expressing a wish to be informed about ladies whom he knew to be respectable, he was stopped short in his inquiries by the conclusive notice: "*Elles ne sont pas de la société; elles sont de la bourgeoisie.*"

Female Education. — While French women are accustomed to take an active part not only in conversation but in business, the ladies in Germany, says this author, are purely and exclusively women; their look, voice, and manners, all indicating the soft qualities of their sex, and an indolent slowness, the consequence of imperfect education. Those of the genteel class are placed in the care of a sort of upper servant, dignified with the title of governess; they learn waltzing, a little music, and enough of French to make an appearance at court

when they reach the age of sixteen. Their mothers are often too heavy and uninformed to judge what conversation should be held or avoided before their daughters; whose minds are therefore left open to sentimental impressions, to the vanity of dress, and in some measure to coquetry. 'The German women have (p. 350.) too much feeling to play the *coquette* with entire security, and not enough to resist playing it at all.' In the *bourgeois* or middling class, the young females are taught dancing and music, but no French: they are fortunately under the necessity of giving a part of their time to house-keeping; and, on the whole, there is little to reprehend in them, except their being too easily captivated by attentions from the *noblesse*. We extract the author's remarks on the favourite national dance of the Germans.

'The waltz, as it is danced in Germany, is an exhilarating and beautiful dance. The tunes are full, spirited, and yet soft; and there is a precision and an agility in the motion, which, in spite of its monotony, make it gay and graceful. It is now becoming the fashion to waltz with great rapidity, a mode imported from Vienna, and which by no means increases the beauty or pleasure of the dance. It sometimes degenerates into a furious scuffle, in which the couples gallop round the room, to the great terror of the bystanders. This mode, in the opinion of some, has the advantage of being without one objectionable character of the slow waltz, in speaking of which a lady admitted to me, "*Alors j'en conviens, la waltz peut être une danse à sentiment*;" an expression which struck me as most delicately embodying all the objections which banish the dance from many English drawing-rooms. Without wishing to see my own country-women become waltzers, I would no more deprive the German ladies of this pleasure, than forbid country-dancing in English drawing-rooms. The former is as innocent in Germany as the latter in England. The impropriety or harmlessness of the amusement depends on habit and national character. English women cannot waltz without doing violence to some invaluable notions of delicacy and reserve with which they have been brought up. The amusement is, therefore, improper, because it cannot at first be indulged in without a certain consciousness that it is so. But the case is different with the German ladies. A German girl of fifteen, whose cheeks are almost suffused with blushes at the sound of her own voice, lays her arm on her partner's shoulder, and suffers her waist to be encircled without a symptom of awkwardness or embarrassment. Her own feelings are the best test of the innocence of what she is doing; and she *moult*s no feather of her purity of mind by joining in an amusement sanctioned by usage, and to which she is habituated from infancy. As my fair country-women cannot indulge in this amusement with the feelings, nor, from the same want of habit, with the grace of Germans, I trust they will know their own dignity too well, to imitate what does not harmonize with their national habits.

I may

I may add, their national virtues. The German ladies will, I hope, also remain national, for waltzing admirably becomes them, and they rarely shine equally in any other dance, or any other occupation.

While on the subject of the fair sex in Germany, we must notice a mortifying circumstance in the habits of the upper ranks, with which many of our readers are unacquainted. Marriage, on the part of men of family in Germany, is often a mere mercenary engagement, as their patrimonial income is trifling, and they are wholly deficient in the industry that is necessary to augment it; and this calculating habit has led to an unfortunate facility in obtaining divorces, which in some states are granted on the mere plea of incompatibility of temper. The present Empress of Austria was the wife of the present King of Wirtemberg, and was divorced several years ago, not in any degree for impropriety of conduct, but from the fickleness of her husband: she felt the separation greatly, and did not recover from the gloom which it caused, even when raised to her subsequent high rank.

Germany, compared with England or even with France, is still a very backward country, and we have in this volume repeated instances of the slowness of the public communications; a German diligence travelling three or four miles only in an hour: letters being eight or ten days in going from Hanover to Frankfort; and the dispatches forwarded from the Low Countries, with notice of the approach of the writer of these sketches, (p. 111.) having been brought to his friends a week after he had enjoyed their society. The treatment at inns, also, is not such as to impress a traveller with much predilection for the country.

‘A German host presides at the *table d’hôte*, carves the dishes, and dispenses his politeness to the guests with a sort of taciturn dignity which is sometimes highly amusing. The subaltern officers, and other regular frequenters of the table, court his conversation, and are pleased to be well with this important personage, generally a well-fed portly man, who, especially if he happen to be a state *employé*, as Mr. Postmaster of the station, is well wrapped up in fat, official complacency. His eldest son has, perhaps, held a commission in the army. Mrs. Postmistress has been or is yet a beauty, or he has a fine family of little ones; who, in such case, frequently adorn the walls of the saloon, and whom I have seen appear in their best dress after dinner, as if their company must be as interesting to the guests as that of the children of a friend. If the sons and daughters dine at table, they generally occupy, with their visitors, the best places round papa and mamma, rarely offering civility to any one, rather declining intercourse, talking easily among themselves, and showing, by their whole deportment, that

that they consider themselves to the full the equals of papa's guests. One of the sons frequently holds the office of *Herr Ober-Keller*, (Mr. Upper Waiter,) the Germans never cheating this useful personage of his title. The host's indifferent *hauteur* rarely gives way to any thing but a stupid servility towards consequence which he is capable of appreciating. Our Baden host, the most silent and sententious of his breed, became all bows and awkward graciousness to a little man with the cross of Malta, who came in late to supper, and who proved to be a Baron holding some office under government. "Would the *Gnadiger Herr* (Gracious Gentleman) like this dish;" or "should he fetch something hot for his Grace?" and other similar attentions were poured forth with an alacrity quite surprising.

Our readers will by this time have perceived that the present is, on the whole, an interesting book; the remarks being original, and the style sprightly, though loose and diffuse, the writer often allowing his pen to range on a favourite topic with very little idea of either curtailings or arranging his effusions. This indulgence is exemplified in a variety of passages, such as his description of the town of Baden and of the manners of the inhabitants of Stuttgart. He keeps up a strict *incognito*, and gives no clue to his station in society: but he appears to have had access to the best company, although economist enough to travel in clumsy, inconvenient diligences, and singularly incorrect (p. 98, &c.) in his quotations from the French, in which he equally violates gender and orthography. At times, his effusions are such as to suggest the probability of his being a juvenile writer: but, on other topics, such as the state of education in Germany, the influence of women in society, and the frivolity of court-etiquette, his remarks are indicative of a certain maturity of mind. In the concluding part of his book, he confirms the accounts of other travellers with regard to the unpopularity of the Prussians at Cologne, Mentz, Juliers, and other towns of the Lower Rhine; a consequence partly of the distress of trade since their occupancy of the country, and partly of the imperious behaviour of the military. The most resolute of our ancestors could not have shewn a more determined hatred to all that was Gallic, than the modern Prussians manifest; the French language being proscribed wherever their officers are present; and the least indication of attachment to the fallen cause being in their eyes a legitimate motive for domineering over the inhabitants of their new territory.

ART. IV. *Mr. Clarke Abel's Narrative of a Journey in the Interior of China, &c.*

[Article concluded from p. 124.]

IN conformity with our promise, we now proceed to lay before our readers an analytical summary of the observations in *Natural History*, which are either blended with this instructive *Narrative* or separately recorded in the *Appendix*. Should it be alleged that these notices are scanty, or disjointed, let it not be forgotten that many particulars must have unavoidably eluded the contemplation of a passing stranger, who was incessantly limited in his range of inquiry, labouring under occasional indisposition, and finally bereft of his collections by the stroke of calamity.

Notwithstanding the obscurity in which the doctrines connected with climate and meteorology are still involved, Mr. Abel has not overlooked the temperature and changes of the atmosphere in the countries which he visited: for he has exhibited, in a table, the variations of the barometer, thermometer, and hygrometer, during the passage of the *Alceste* from Hong-Kong, up the Eastern and Yellow Seas, to the Gulf of Pe-tche-lee; and, in another table, his friend Dr. Lynn has registered the weight, temperature, and humidity of the air, during the progress of the Embassy through China. The indications of the barometer and thermometer nearly correspond with the anticipations which might have been formed from the latitude and bearings of the vessel. South-westerly winds were usually accompanied by haze, and the northerly by clear weather, with occasional squalls, attended by thunder and lightning. Other memoranda relative to climate are dispersed through the volume. Thus we are informed that at the island of Hong-Kong, in the month of June, the thermometer in the shade stood at 83, at eight o'clock in the morning; and at Tong-Tchow, from the 20th of August to the 2d of September, it frequently stood at 86, and never below 83, during the day; while, in the night, it generally fell to 72 and 70, accompanied by a remarkable sensation of cold, which was regarded as 'inexplicable by a reference to the absolute temperature,' but most probably depending on the abstraction of caloric from the human body. In the same regions, the profusion of thick lumps of ice, preserved as an article of luxury, sufficiently attested the severity of the winter's cold. During the voyage from Hong-Kong, the barometer varied little, but both the thermometer and hygrometer underwent frequent changes. The author says, 'I perhaps can give no better

better notion of the excessive moisture of the atmosphere in the China seas during the south-west monsoon, than by stating that Leslie's hygrometer is not graduated to a sufficient extent to mark its degree; that our clothes were as wet as if they had been exposed to a smart shower of rain; and that no metallic instruments, however packed, were secure against its penetrating influence. A change of weather also followed the variations of the barometer, however inconsiderable. Its rise, like that of the hygrometer, usually indicated northerly winds; a fall of four lines was followed by rain; and a fall of a tenth of an inch, by thunder and lightning.*

Some gentlemen of the East-India Company's service, who had witnessed the phenomena of the typhoons, supplied Mr. Abel with the subsequent information:

'The mercury in the barometer falls slowly for several hours before the commencement of the typhoon, descends during its continuance below 27 inches, and its re-ascension is a sure indication that the storm is subsiding. These barometrical movements are not accompanied by any constant atmospherical changes. The storms occur more frequently during the changes of the moon than at her full. They seldom prevail below 10° north latitude, or beyond the tropic of Cancer. They are felt as far as 130° east longitude, and are more violent in the China seas during the south-west monsoon, especially in the month of July. It is also stated that the wind is most violent when it blows in the direction of the monsoon, but that it also blows strong from all points of the compass, through which it is continually shifting; but before the commencement of the gale is generally light.'

Having expressed his regret at the little attention which has been paid to the state of the hygrometer and thermometer, during the continuance of such formidable tempests, Mr. Abel thus continues:

'It is also to be lamented that the hygrometer, especially Leslie's, is not more used as a meteorological instrument. During my voyage I repeatedly experienced the peculiar delicacy of this instrument in indicating changes in the humidity of the atmosphere; and as all winds are probably charged with their peculiar moisture, this instrument would express their slightest variations. And I have no doubt that by repeated variations a hygrometrical scale might be formed which would be of great utility to the mariner.* Mr. Leslie's instrument requires, however, a little modification before it can be applied with effect in those latitudes in which the air is saturated with moisture. At present its scale is graduated to about 120° marking the point of greatest dryness,

* See on this subject the observations of Krusenstern, Péron, and Humboldt.'

and zero the point of greatest moisture: this last point is placed at the extremity of the scale near the bulb. In using this instrument in the China seas during the south-west monsoon, I found that the fluid of the instrument remained in that part of the tube which is between the bulb and zero. Might not this part of the instrument be lengthened, and zero marked higher up?

‘Whenever this instrument indicates a saturated state of the atmosphere at periods when changes of wind are probable, such change may be expected to be sudden and violent. For if a large body of very humid air come in contact with a wind colder than itself, its moisture will suddenly be precipitated, which producing a comparative vacuum, either the wind which occasioned it will blow with great violence, or if the subversion of the equilibrium has been extensive, every point of the compass will contribute to its restoration. That something of this kind occurs in the typhoons of the China seas, and in the hurricanes of the East and West Indies, appears very probable from the consideration of the circumstances attending them. These storms are generally most severe near the land, and in narrow seas between the tropics, and during the hottest seasons of the year when the air is most rarefied and contains the greatest quantity of moisture. They are more general also at those periods when a change of wind is expected, as when the moon enters her different quarters, and at the change of the monsoons.’

The climate of Java, with the exception of Batavia, appears to be by no means unhealthy; and the obvious causes of the exception are thus forcibly enumerated:

‘It is impossible to visit this city, and not to be astonished at the infinite pains that have been taken to unite in one spot all the possible causes of disease. It is built close to the sea on a wet alluvial soil, is surrounded by swamps, and intersected with nearly stagnant canals, the receptacles of all the decomposing animal and vegetable matter ejected from the houses and sewers on their banks. The carcases of buffaloes, and other animals brought down by the rivers, are stopped near the mouth of the harbour by the extreme shallowness of the bar; and undergoing putrefaction, contaminate the air around them. The houses are so built as to admit very little ventilation, being closely packed together, with their ends opposed to the sea and land breeze: indeed, so afraid is a Dutchman of having his perspiration stopped by cool air, that he closes all his doors and windows during its prevalence. These circumstances in almost any climate would generate disease, but must be dreadfully operative within six degrees of the equator: their effects are aided by the use of large meals, strong drink, and much sleep.’

Although the gentlemen of the Embassy resided during seven weeks at the distance of only three miles from the town, and entered it twice or thrice in a week, they experienced no illness of consequence; and indeed the diseases, which

which Mr. Abel had occasion to observe in the island, generally yielded to the simplest remedies; so that the indiscriminate use of mercury is at once unnecessary and mischievous.

Some pertinent remarks occur (pp. 67. 344—347.) on the temperature of the sea at different depths; a subject on which both the philosopher and the mariner still desiderate a more liberal stock of accurate data.

If we next direct our attention to the departments of geology and mineralogy, we shall find the author diligently availing himself of every opportunity of investigation within his power, and imparting to his readers such details as his notes and recollection have enabled him to supply. The mineral springs of Java, situated at a place called *Epetan*, and in the midst of a jungle, occupy about fifty yards square of barren soil; and they are so violently agitated by the ascent of sulfuretted hydrogen gas, that they seem to be in a state of actual ebullition, though their temperature only corresponds with that of the surrounding atmosphere. Their smell is, in course, analogous to that of the Harrogate waters. The natives, who ascribe many medical virtues to these pools, believe them to be particularly efficacious in cutaneous disorders; and the author mentions that they completely cured some troublesome ulcers on his hand, which had been occasioned by the bites of musquitoes.

The island of Hong-Kong is represented as chiefly remarkable for its central and conical mountains; the highest of which, according to measurement, is fifteen hundred feet above the level of the sea, and consists of trap approaching to basalt from the compactness of its texture. Here, then, we have an exception to a *geognostic* position of the Wernerians; who assign the rounded back, and not the sugar-loaf form, as characteristic of all hills of the trap-formation. Mr. Abel adverts to a small hill, or mound, differing in structure from all the rocks in the neighbourhood, being composed of a very friable mass of apparently desintegrated felspar. The island itself, which does not occur in any of the charts, exceeds not three hundred yards in its largest diameter: but it displays, on its northern side, a curious junction of the granite and basalt which compose its geological constitution. This junction is effected by a basaltic vein, or dyke, passing upwards through the granite, and spreading over it; the substance of the basalt being separated from that of the granite by three veinlets, which follow the dyke through its whole extent: the first being a confused mixture of granite and basalt, the second pure felspar

felspar, and the third a sort of porphyry, composed of very perfect crystals of felspar in a basaltic base. Near the line of junction, masses of basalt are imbedded in the granite. The width of the dyke is four feet, but that of the smaller veins does not exceed so many inches. This basaltic dyke has been obviously projected from the mass of basalt which stretches beneath the granite, and is hidden under the sea; so that the appearance is irreconcilable with the idea of infiltration from above. A sketch of the basaltic dyke is exhibited on one of the small wood-cuts.

In the city of Tien-Sing, the author had an opportunity of examining various specimens of the Yu stone, so highly prized by the Chinese, although generally of a dull or muddy colour, and admitting not of such a fine polish as our common agate. The greenish variety, which is most in request, is probably a modification of jade, or axe-stone: but the term seems also to be applied to other mineral species, and particularly to the *talç glaphique* of Haiü. Though as hard as rock-crystal, it is worked into an endless variety of forms. It is found in detached nodules at the bottom of ravines, and in the beds of torrents; and in larger masses in the mountains, but the latter have the coarsest grain. All the specimens are submitted to the Emperor's selection before they are carried to the market.

Such of the islands, in the Yang-tse-kiang, as were examined, were formed of an agglomerate of fragments of quartz, lime-stone, and felspar-porphry, united by a very thin argillaceous cement, or else imbedded in sand-stone. Such, too, were sometimes the geological features of the banks of the river: but the mountains near its junction with the Po-yang lake consisted of small-grained granite and micaceous schistus. The same district affords very large and perfect crystals of felspar, many of them measuring three or four inches in their largest diameter, and frequently conjoined with masses of light-grey mica, of similar dimensions.

The Mei-ling mountain, which rises about 1000 feet above the plain, has for basis a rock of compact argillaceous sand-stone; through the summit of which has been cut a narrow passage, a work of much time and difficulty. In an extensive plain to the south of this mountain, immense square blocks of lime-stone, as if artificially piled on one another, present a singular and very striking scene, the general effect of which is exhibited in an engraving. These accumulated and towering masses are supposed to be the remains of a regular horizontal stratification. During the farther progress of the party

party towards Canton, the banks of the river displayed argillaceous sand-stone, lime-stone, and breccia.

* Some pits * of coal had been met with by some of the Embassy soon after leaving the Po-yang lake, but I had not been well enough to examine them. However, I received sufficient evidences of coal being abundant in the empire, and of various qualities, in the large supplies of it furnished to our boats, and exposed for sale in different cities that we visited.† The coal which I saw in the province of Pe-tche-lee was a species of graphite; that brought to me from the towns on the Yang-tse-kiang resembled cannel coal; that observed after passing the Po-yang lake had the characters of Kovey [Bovey] coal; that now met with contained much sulphur.

‡ The last-mentioned coal was used in the manufacture of sulphate of iron, in the neighbourhood of Chaou-chou-foo. The following process, in its different stages, was witnessed by several gentlemen of the Embassy. A quantity of hepatic iron pyrites; in very small pieces, mixed with about an equal quantity of the coal in the same state, being formed into a heap, was covered with a coating of lime-plaster. In a short time, great action took place in the mass, accompanied by the extrication of much heat and smoke, and was allowed to go on till it spontaneously ceased. The heap was then broken up and put into water, which was afterwards boiled till considerably reduced in quantity, and was then evaporated in shallow vessels. Very pure crystals of sulphate of iron were obtained at the close of the process.

In the 11th chapter, Mr. Abel delineates the leading features of the geology of the Cape of Good Hope, on his second visit to that remarkable promontory, and subsequently to the observations of Captain Hall and Professor Playfair, inserted in the 7th volume of the Edinburgh Transactions. The wide and sloping surfaces of the Table-Mountain, which first attracted his attention, are composed of granite, and its summit of horizontal strata of sand-stone. A black schistose rock, which Captain Hall indifferently designates *killas*, or *grauwacké*, is in many places singularly mixed up with the granite, as represented in the plates; while, in some situations, the granite is seen to ramify in every possible direction, and in the most

* “ Foo-hoo-tang appearing an insignificant village, we took a short walk into the country, where we met with some pits of coal that had been sunk like wells; the fragments at the bottom of the hill, where they were situated, appeared pure slate.” — Ellis's Embassy, vol. ii. p. 107.

† “ The Missionaries inform us, that coal-mines are so abundant in every province of China, that there is, perhaps, no country of the world in which they are so common.” — See Grosier's Account of China, vol. i. p. 402.

irregular forms. These and other particulars are detailed with ability and interest, though the junction of the granite and sand-stone escaped the detection of the traveller in his ascent of the Table-Mountain. His repeated searches for the mass of native iron, on the summit of the same elevation, likewise proved fruitless: though several persons at Cape-town, some of whom had actually seen it, assured him of its former existence: 'but it is there generally believed to be the fluke of an anchor, as mentioned by Mr. Barrow, (in his Travels in Southern Africa,) and was described to me as such by the late Mr. Gothorpe, master of the *Alceste*, who had examined it. An elderly gentleman, who resides at Simon's Town, stated to Captain Maxwell, that he was one of a large party who many years ago carried it up; with what motive it is, perhaps, not easy to imagine. It does not, however, I apprehend, exist on the top of Table-Mountain at this time. A mass of iron, answering its description in every respect, has lately been seen at some distance below, and is probably tumbled further down by every succeeding person who finds it. The only iron which I met with in any part of Table-Mountain was in the form of red oxide, a vein of which I saw passing through the sand-stone when about two-thirds up the mountain.'

Our attention is next invited to an evident and extensive junction of the granite and sand-stone, in the neighbourhood of Simon's Bay, pointed out by Capt. Wauchope, R.N. For all the specialties of this interesting phænomenon, we must refer to Mr. Abel's perspicuous description; and with the greater confidence, because, in the true spirit of candour and philosophy, he first states the result of his observations and then reasons on them hypothetically: adopting, in part, the *igneous solutions* of his precursors mentioned above, but at the same time having recourse to the operation of water, in order to explain the formation of the beds of sand-stone and the appearances attending its union with the granite. Though we cannot afford to track him in his masterly line of discussion, we may give his conclusions in his own words:

'The appearances, then, which I have described, and the conclusions that I have ventured to draw, seem to point out four different eras, corresponding to as many separate conditions of the rocks constituting the peninsula of the Cape. The first, indefinite as to its commencement, continued whilst the schistus reposed at the bottom of the sea, and terminated when the granite in fusion burst through it, and formed dry land. The second, commencing at this epoch, terminated when the water rose above the granite. The third had its duration whilst the water stood high above the earth and deposited the sand-stone. The fourth

com-

commenced with the retrocession of the water and the appearance of the present dry land, and will terminate with the existing order of things. Another consequence of the fact that I have cited appears to be, that the mountains at the Cape of Good Hope exhibit phænomena illustrative and confirmative of certain positions both of the Huttonian and Wernerian theories, but only to be entirely explained by the agency of both the elements on which the respective systems are founded.'

Among the more detached facts of a geological description observed in the same district, we may notice a vein of red oxyd of iron, six feet wide, and traced for upwards of a hundred feet on the Steinberg; numerous and striking specimens of calcareous stalactites in a hill, on the other side of the Steinberg; and a quantity of calcareous cylindrical bodies, resembling the bleached bones of animals, which lay scattered near Simon's Town on a bank of shells and sand, apparently brought up by the south-east wind. These bodies were found, on close inspection, to be really incrustations formed on vegetables, which had afterward decayed; and they correspond to specimens observed by Vancouver, Flinders, and Péron, on the shores of New Holland, which were supposed to be corals; until Péron remarked in some of them the woody texture, and in others its disorganization. From some chemical trials to which Mr. Abel had recourse, these petrifications seem to consist of carbonate of lime, quartz, and vegetable matter: 'a conclusion that accords with the circumstances under which they are found, and their frequent arborescent character.'

It is now time for us to enter on Flora's undisputed and animated domain. Early in the course of the volume, the reader is ushered into the public botanic garden near Rio de Janeiro; an extensive establishment, but neglected by the government, and depending for its maintenance chiefly on the zeal of Senhor Gomez, the superintendant: who, through the ministration of a few Chinese gardeners, has completely succeeded in the cultivation of the Tea-plant. 'It was in seed at the time of my visit, and its leaves had been repeatedly and effectively manufactured. The process pursued is very simple. The leaves are gathered in the month of January, after heavy falls of rain, before they are wholly expanded, care being taken that no foot-stalks are mingled with them; they are then put into an iron vessel, and exposed to heat till they begin to shrink; when they are taken out, and rolled between the hands till they become spirally folded. They are then returned into the vessel, and again exposed to heat till it becomes intolerable to the hand, which continually agitates them, to prevent their burning; and thus the process is finished.'

Other Chinese plants, as the tallow-tree, wax-tree, &c. were in full vigour: but Mr. Abel's hurried visit to the garden prevented him from surveying its contents at leisure, and also from procuring the *Ipecacuanha* plant of the Brazils, which grows in profusion in the neighbourhood. This latter circumstance is the more to be regretted, because the opinions of botanists are still at variance respecting the species employed in medicine; and it is presumed that plants belonging to at least two genera are currently imported into Europe under the appellation of *Ipecacuanha*, namely, *Psychotria emetica*, Lin., and *Callicocca ipecacuanha* of Brotero, the distinctions between which are more formally set forth in the Appendix.

In the island of Hong-Kong, the prevailing plant is a fern, probably *Polypodium trichotomum*: but the author likewise remarked *Beckia Chinensis*, *Myrtus tomentosus*, *Melastoma quinquenervia*, *Limodorum striatum*, and *Rubus Moluccus* of Rumphius. — Among the cultivated species about Tien-Sing, besides millet and beans, the *Sida tilifolia*, *Sesamum Orientale*, and *Ricinus communis*, constantly occurred in patches or fields: from the first, the Chinese obtain a sort of hemp; from the second, an esculent oil; and from the third, castor-oil. In the immediate vicinity of Tsai-tsun, tall and thick planted stems of *Holcus sorghum* concealed from view an indefinite extent of marshy soil. 'At this early period,' says the writer, 'I was enabled to observe, that much as the Chinese may excel in obtaining abundant products from land naturally fertile, they are much behind other nations in the art of improving that which is naturally barren.' They delight, however, to decorate their courtyards with ornamental shrubs and flowers, as *Ipomœa quamoclit*, *Heimerocallis Japonica*, *Tradescantia cristata*, &c.: but *Nelumbium speciosum* seems to be cultivated and prized above all others, is celebrated for its beauty by their poets, and is ranked among the plants which 'enter into the beverage of immortality.' They readily made presents of cultivated plants, and gladly accepted gifts in return; particularly black-lead pencils, and English writing-paper. In the list of plants most commonly raised for use, we find *Holcus sorghum*, a species of *Panic* grass, Buck-wheat, *Solanum melongena*, two species of *Capsicum*, the sweet potatoe, several kinds of gourds, cucumbers, kidney-beans, &c. The *Petsai*, a sort of cabbage, or salad, is as popular and national a vegetable among the Chinese as the potatoe among the Irish. When eaten as a salad, it is equal to any lettuce, and, when boiled, has somewhat of the flavour of asparagus. During winter,

it is pickled, or preserved in various ways. Though Mr. Abel has not assigned its station in the botanical nomenclature, we suspect that it is the *Simplicia Pehinensis*, Lour. 'It often weighs from fifteen to twenty pounds, and reaches the height of two or three feet.'

On the walls of Nanku were observed *Rosa Banksiana*, *Cytisus spinosa*, *Hamamelis chinensis*, and especially *Pyrus repens*, in great profusion.—The hilly and picturesque country about Ta-tung is productive of rare plants, and particularly of fine oaks, among which *Quercus densifolia* and *Q. chinensis* are conspicuous.—The rocky district of Nankang-foo abounds in rare and undescribed ferns and mosses. On quitting this spot, the Embassy entered on more flowery paths, in which a species of *Cornellia* proudly predominates, differing, however, from the *Semiquit*, and therefore denominated by Mr. Abel *deffera*, because the Chinese derive from it much of the oil which they consume. The simple processes of obtaining the oil from the seeds of this plant, and tallow from the *Cydonia schimperii*, Lin., are duly recorded.

—It is stated that the *Laurum camphora* attains to the size of our largest elms or oaks: but the camphor, procured from it by the process here detailed, is less valued by the Chinese themselves than that which they import from Siam. The timber of the tree is used both in building and in the manufacture of articles of furniture.—Of the new and rare species of smaller plants which the author encountered in his peregrinations, he particularises *Eugenia microphylla*, heretofore undescribed, though covering the declivities of almost every hill in the province of Kiang-si. It resembles an elegant dwarf-myrtle, and bears thick terminal clusters of dark purple berries, which are eaten by the natives. In advancing towards Nan-gan-foo, the traveller is saluted by a rich variety of plants on the hills, and a copious display of the *Eurya japonica* of Thunberg. The *Arachis hypogaea*, or ground-nut, appeared to be cultivated to a great extent for the sake of the oil extracted from its seeds; and for the nourishment which, both as a fruit and a vegetable, it yields to the common people.—The prevailing tree, and probably the most widely diffused plant in China, since it was observed through more than ten degrees of north latitude and six of east longitude, is the *Pyrus Massoniana*.

While Mr. Abel briefly adverts to the culture of the sugar-cane, he reduces the far-famed terrace husbandry of the Chinese to the tillage of a few declivities, singularly favourable to such insignificant attempts.—As the Embassy were permitted to visit some nursery-grounds at three miles from Canton.

Canton, their eyes were greeted rather with the glaring colours than with the varieties of their contents; the general and figuring species being the peony-tree, azalias, camellias, roses, and orange-trees. 'Almost all the dwarf plants seen in the gardens were elms, twisted into grotesque shapes. One of the principal methods of checking their growth, and giving them the appearance of age, appeared to consist in taking up a young plant and putting it into a pot too small to allow the spreading of its roots, thereby depriving it of the means of vigorous growth; afterwards wounding the bark in different places, so as to cover it with scars which might seem to be the consequence of decay; and by tying the branches to each other, and giving them all kinds of curves.'

Having lost his specimens of tea-plants, Mr. Abel cannot decide the question whether there be one or more species of this shrub; although he is inclined to believe that there are two. It likewise results from his observations that a meagre soil, on the sides of hills, is best suited to its habits; and that its culture might be successfully prosecuted at the Cape of Good Hope.

Among the fine fruits of Java, the Mangostan maintains a decided preference:

'On removing the rind, its esculent substance appears in the form of a juicy pulp, having the whiteness and solubility of snow, and a refreshing, delicate, delicious flavour. To define it by more precise language is very difficult. We were all anxious to carry away with us some precise expression of its qualities, but after satisfying ourselves that it partook of the compound taste of the pine-apple and the peach, we were obliged to confess that it had many other equally good, but utterly inexpressible, flavours. This fruit, from its perfect wholesomeness, may be eaten in any quantity; and as it possesses no luscious qualities, it does not soon cloy the palate. The mangostan tree is worthy of the fruit it bears. It grows to the size of a very large cherry-tree. Its leaves are three or four inches long, of an oval form, of a shining green colour, and might be taken for those of a magnolia. Its blossom is a spreading corolla of four petals, of a reddish pink colour, and often decorates the plant at the same time with its fruit. Its branches are pendant, and, when loaded with fruit, curve in graceful arches quite round the stem.'

The grounds of Plantation-house, at St. Helena, present peculiar attractions to the botanist, as they have received contributions of choice plants from various quarters of the world, and afford them the means of vigorous and healthy growth;—the probable consequence of the warm and equable temperature which prevails at the governor's mansion.

In the Appendix, Mr. Robert Brown, the celebrated botanist, has given the generic and specific characters of three new species of plants noticed in the narrative; namely, *Hamamelis Chinensis*, *Abelia Chinensis*, and *Eurya Chinensis*, accompanied with a plate of each.

The first *locomotive* object, that formally passes under the writer's review, is a specimen of the Flying-fish; differing in some respects from the *Exocoæti* hitherto described, and resembling the *volitans* in the position of its ventral fins, but not in the colour of its back, which is a deep blue, passing on the sides into a yellowish green: thus agreeing with *exiliens* and *mesogaster* in its general hues, but varying from them in the position of its ventral fins, and differing from them all by the position of its dorsal fins. Hence it is proposed to give it the provisional designation of *splendens*, or *maculatus*; the latter epithet being expressive of the white spots which reach from above the eyes to the pectoral fins. In opposition to the common idea that the *Exocoæti* spring into the air to elude the pursuit of the *dorado* and other enemies, it is asserted that they 'were often seen rising about the ship in all directions, when no foe was visibly near, and when they had not been disturbed by the ship's motion through the water:' whence it is presumed that they take pleasure in their aerial bounds, and that they are not so incessantly persecuted as we have generally supposed. It is even insinuated that, from the position and conformation of the air-bladder, they may be capable of breathing in the atmosphere.

Leaving the contemplation of this beautiful fish, which is well exhibited in the plate, we are summoned to attend on a more repulsive kind of being, which also flutters about in the air; namely, the great Bat of Java, which differs from that of New Holland chiefly in having an undivided membrane between its hinder extremities. Although its body is only of the size of a full-grown rat, yet its extended wing-membrane measures five feet; its long hair, and its tail, (which is four inches long,) resemble those of the fox, to which quadruped it is also assimilated by its smell. As it flies at great heights, and has an herbivorous stomach, it is probably not carnivorous: but it occasions extensive injury to the fruit-trees by stripping them of their blossoms. It is often seen even in the day-time, passing over the Straits of Sunda, in large flocks; whence we may infer that it is capable not only of sustaining its volant motion much longer than our European bats, but also of better enduring the light.

From the long and interesting account of the great Snake of Java with which we are here presented, we concur with the author in thinking that it is more nearly allied to *Coluber* than to *Boa*, and that he has rightly designed it *Pytho Javanicus*. The manner in which this voracious creature dispatches an entire goat is thus related :

‘ A duck was only a mouthful to him ; a goat being his usual meal. On board the Cæsar he swallowed two, which were given to him in his cage, at the interval of a month from each other. As soon as the goat was within his reach, he raised his head above his coils, and having contemplated his prey a few seconds, felt it with his tongue. The goat did not appear to be much alarmed, as he examined the snake closely, smelling him over with great deliberation. The snake having withdrawn his head a short distance, made a sudden dart at the throat of the goat, which received him on its horns, and obliged him for an instant to retreat. He then made a second dart, and seizing the goat by the leg, pulled it violently down, and insinuated his folds with momentary rapidity about its body, squeezing it at the same time with all the force he could bring to bear. But even in this instance, the animal was too small to suffer their whole compressing effect, and he was obliged to destroy the goat much in the same manner as he had the duck, by throwing the weight of his body on its neck. The goat was eight minutes dying, but was so entirely overwhelmed by the power of the snake, that it could not even struggle.

‘ The snake did not attempt to change his posture for some minutes after the goat was dead. At length he gradually slackened his folds, and then disengaged them one by one, with great caution and slowness, as if to ascertain whether the goat retained any power of motion ; and having entirely disentangled himself, prepared to swallow it by placing himself opposite to its head, and feeling it with his mouth. While doing this, saliva flowed abundantly over his jaws, but he made no attempt to besmear his prey. In a few minutes he took its nose into his mouth, and endeavoured to draw the head after it : but this appeared to be no easy task. The dilatation of his throat seemed to begin with difficulty, as he was at least one-third of the time consumed in gorging the goat, in getting down the head and horns. These diverged at a considerable angle, and were four inches in length. Having conquered them, he grappled with the shoulders, which he was some time in mastering ; but readily overcame the remainder of the body. In drawing the goat into his swallow, he appeared to work himself unto it, opening his mouth as wide as possible, and forcing it onwards. Whatever progress he thus made, was preserved by strong recurved teeth which permitted the animal to pass down his throat, but prevented its regurgitation without his will. The act of swallowing was also much aided, I suspect, by the pressure of the air on the goat's body, as a deep inspiration accompanied every successive attempt to draw it down his throat. He was two hours and five minutes in gorging the whole animal.

‘ The

'The appearance of the snake, when in the act of swallowing the shoulders of the goat, was very hideous. He seemed to be suffering strangulation. His cheeks, immensely dilated, appeared to be bursting, and his windpipe projected three inches beyond his jaws. The horns of the goat, which had advanced only a few inches down his swallow, protruded so much, that I expected them every instant to penetrate through the intervening membrane of the scales, which they separated from each other. After the goat was down, he scarcely moved from the posture he was in during his last act of deglutition, but fell into a semi-torpid state, from which no irritation could rouse him for several days. At this time he measured three feet in his greatest circumference, having doubled his ordinary diameter. The goat's body underwent no visible diminution of bulk or consistence by the action of the snake's folds, but seemed to pass down his throat in an entire state.'

The foregoing particulars are accompanied by some temperate statements relative to the destruction of large animals by serpents, and which excite reasonable doubts as to the breaking of the bones of the former by the forceful coils of the latter. The alarming allegations of Bontius, concerning the deleterious touch and deadly bite of one of the *Geokos* indigenous to Java, are also very properly called in question.

Towards the close of the narrative, some pleasing and instructive remarks are devoted to the conformation and manners of the Orang-outang; suggested by a young living specimen, which proved a source of no small entertainment to the ship's crew, on the passage homeward. Mr. Abel is perfectly aware of the confusion and discordance which have crept into the history of this species, from blending it with that of the *Pongo* of Africa, and from a want of due regard to the age of the individuals described. When we reflect on the youth of that which is so minutely delineated in the present volume, we cannot refrain from expressing our surprize at the many feats and playful tricks which it performed. The gentleness of its disposition is not materially at variance with the details of Vosmaër and F. Cuvier; though it ill accords with the petulant and mischievous propensities which are usually attributed to the ape-tribes in general, and to the Orang-outang in particular. The fact seems to be that, among these quadrupeds, as among other families of the inferior animals, diversities of character obtain in individuals of the same species; and that even the same individual will betray very considerable varieties of humour, according to its age, state of health, the kind or the harsh treatment of it, the circumstance of being confined or at liberty, &c. The author's critical notes are likely to contribute

tribute to a more distinct elucidation of the genuine Orang-outang of Borneo than we have yet possessed; and his notice of the anatomical preparation of a shark's eye, executed by Mr. Radkin, and accompanied by an excellent plate, will likewise be found highly deserving of the attention of the physiologist.

In conclusion, we very cordially sympathize with Mr. Abel and with the public on the loss of those collections which might have, in some measure, reconciled us to the failure of a very expensive state-mission, undertaken in apparent defiance of every dictate of wisdom and experience.

ART. V. *Karamania*; or a brief Description of the South Coast of Asia-Minor and of the Remains of Antiquity. With Plans, Views, &c. collected during a Survey of that Coast, under the Orders of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, in the Years 1811 and 1812. By Francis Beaufort, F.R.S. Captain of His Majesty's Ship *Frederiksteen*. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 320. 14s. Boards. Hunter. 1818.

By the explanatory title-page of this volume, the reader is made fully acquainted with the objects and origin of the expedition which it describes; and which was undertaken when Mr. Yorke presided at the Admiralty. The result of the survey is now engraving for the use of the navy; and the present publication is a testimony that Captain Beaufort did not confine himself to the main design of his voyage, but extended his remarks to all those objects of antiquarian research which fell within his notice. He thus affords a striking proof of the advantages of a mind imbued with a good education, and expanded by general and liberal information, in every profession; and exposing, consequently, the folly of those who would confine persons destined for many of the occupations of life to a course of instruction purely professional. It is by a contrary mode that the sailor contributes to the stores of the learned, and the soldier to an enlargement of our knowledge of our fellow-creatures in distant countries: while the personal advantages resulting to themselves, in the amusements to be derived from taste, from observation, and from reflection, are too manifest to require us to enlarge on them.

Karamania is the title applied by Europeans to the southern shores of Asia-minor, but is not recognized by the present natives; nor does it appear that any appellation, at all similar in sound, is conferred on this extensive tract. A state bearing this name did indeed once exist, and comprized the

antient

antient provinces of Lycia, Pamphylia, the two Cilicias, with parts of Caria and Phrygia: but it ceased to flourish, probably about the close of the fifteenth century, when the victorious Bajazet the Second subverted the dynasties of this part of the Asiatic continent. One inland-town still bears the name of Karaman. These regions are now divided among the tributary Pashas of the Porte, whose supremacy is little more than nominal; and their respective dominions are not separated by any very precise boundaries, or with any reference to the lines of demarcation between the Roman provinces. It may be sufficient to add, in general, that this fair portion of nature exhibits all the miseries of Turkish domination; and that the inhabitants are partakers of that moral degradation, which is so universal among the subjects of that vast but enfeebled empire. One fact, as recorded by Captain Beaufort, is a curious instance of the effects of despotic government on the habits of a people; viz. that 'on this extensive line of coast, which stretches along a sea abounding with fish, the inhabitants do not possess a single boat.'

As the notices of these countries in modern times have been only partial, and very rare, we shall follow our present well-informed conductor much more closely than if he had led us along those shores of the Mediterranean which are usually frequented by the tourist or the voyager.

With Herodotus, Strabo, Appian, Livy, Pliny, &c., as his cabin-furniture, Captain Beaufort commences his operations at Yedy-Booroon, meaning *the Seven Capes*, presumed to be the antient Mount Cragus of Lycia, and pursues his course to the east. The ruins of Patara first arrest his attention, which still preserve their antient name, and are far from uninteresting. The theatre is excavated on the northern side of a small hill, forming something more than a semi-circle; of which the external diameter is about two hundred feet, and contains thirty-four rows of marble seats, few of which have been disturbed. The antient walls inclose a very large area, covered with architectural fragments of all descriptions; and externally are numerous stone sarcophagi, usually bearing inscriptions, but in general more or less mutilated. Captain Beaufort gives us a copy of one in elegiac measure, which, if placed in the form of verse, and reduced from capitals, would probably run thus:

Ἴδεν Ἀθηναῖος πάλιν Διονύσιον ἔργον
 Ἡ ξύμπλη Πάταρον γῆν μὲν λαβύσσει κρητὴν
 Τμήλην αἶψ' ἀμπελοειδὴς ἔχω δὲ κλέος, καὶ ἐν αὐτοῖς,
 Ὀδὸν μὲν γαλῶν ἀμφιβάλλον δεσφύην?

The meaning of these lines, as a monumental inscription, is sufficiently obvious. Some doubtful letters in the capitals have been restored by the author; and the only one that was altogether effaced was the T, which we have supplied in the word *avlois*. Capt. B. thinks that it is clear from Strabo and Livy, (lib. xxxvii. 17.) that there once was a harbour at Patara; the situation of which is still apparent, though it is at present a swamp only, without communication with the sea. On reference to the passage of Livy, we find that this harbour was probably never of much importance; since L. Æmilius, having inquired of the Rhodians whether it would contain his fleet, and receiving an answer in the negative, desisted from his expedition against that place; and in a preceding chapter it is also said, "*Circa urbem statio tuta non erat.*" It appears, nevertheless, that vast accumulations of sand have been formed since the times to which we refer.

The ruins of Xanthus, as supposed, were reported to be of a much greater extent. It was here, as Herodotus (i. c. 176.) relates, that an extraordinary act of desperate courage was displayed by the Lycians; who, when besieged, set fire to their own *acropolis*, and were consumed in its ruins. Two miles farther to the east, Capt. B. anchored in the bay of Kalamaki, which he conceives to be the port Phœnicus of the antients, and mentioned as such by Livy. The descriptions seem to correspond with sufficient accuracy, especially as they regard the distance. The modern town of Kartelorizo is chiefly inhabited by Greeks, and maintains some commerce with Alexandria, mostly in the article of wood for fuel. The site is on an island, answering rather closely to the Megistè of the antients. D'Anville seems to follow Strabo in calling it Cithenè: but there can be little doubt that the two old names are applied to one and the same place. Sevedo and Vathy are capacious harbours: in the lime-stone cliffs are many sepultures, and catacombs hollowed out; and in the same vicinity are the remains of a theatre clearly much inferior to that of Patara. The antient town appears to have been the Antiphellus of Strabo.

The modern places in succession are Kakava, Myra, and Phineka; the coast being formed by parallel ranges of hills into long islands and peninsulas. Speaking of the former, the author says:

' At the foot of the hill there is a small pier and quay; and the foundations of dwelling houses, reservoirs, and stairs hewn out of the rock, shew that it was once a place of some consequence.

' On

‘ On the inside shore of the long island of Kakava, and immediately opposite to the above castle, are the remains of a large collection of houses, extending about half a mile along the bay, but unconnected by any road or street. The face of the island is wholly in a state of nature; so covered with loose projecting rocks, and intersected by irregular chasms, that all communication must have been carried on by water: and accordingly, every house has a flight of steps cut in the rock, for the convenience of boats. It is remarkable that in some places, three or four of the lower steps, and even the foundations of walls, are now beneath the surface of the water. Various modern travellers describe submerged ruins at Aboukir and at the Pharos of Alexandria, on the opposite shore of the Mediterranean, and by a curious coincidence, in nearly the same longitude as Kakava: To account for these and similar facts, some eminent philosophers have supposed, that the level of the sea has gradually risen: but were that the cause, we should undoubtedly have observed a repetition of the same effect in our progress along the rest of the coast. These appearances have also been ascribed to earthquakes, and even to the subsidence of the land itself; I am, however, inclined to think that the particular case in question, may be more simply explained than by any of those hypotheses. Though there are no tides in this part of the Mediterranean, at least none that perceptibly depend on the influence of the moon, yet, a considerable rise and fall of the sea is produced by the alternate prevalence of the north and south winds: the former last for many weeks in summer, and, when violent, lower the surface of the water upwards of two feet. This circumstance would have obviously afforded sufficient opportunity for laying the foundations, and forming the steps at Kakava. A south-east wind may be supposed to produce the same results on the coast of Egypt; but the authors above quoted only mention the facts in general terms, without stating the depth of water.’

This solution appears to be sensible; and it is a case of which an actual observer can alone afford good testimony. The supply of water on this coast is very precarious, as the summer-heat dries up the rivulets, and that which is preserved in the reservoirs of ruined houses affords only an uncertain quantity. Kakava is set down as the *Dolichisté* of Ptolemy; a name which undoubtedly expresses well the present form of the island. Andriace and Myra retain traces of their old appellations: the remains at the latter are numerous, but Capt. B. was prevented by his professional duties from paying much attention to them; an omission which is the less to be regretted, because they have since been inspected by that able observer Mr. Cockerell. Passing the cape of Phineka, and probably the antient site of *Aperræ*, and the river *Limyrus* of Strabo, the Captain pursues the coast to the great *Khelidonian* promontory, the
antient

ancient *Promontorium sacrum*; which is described by him as a termination of a branch of the vast chain of Taurus. * Five rugged islands lie off this cape, whereas Strabo mentions but three; a circumstance which, combined with some appearances of the place, would lead to the supposition of a change effected by an earthquake since the period at which he wrote. While on this part of the coast, Captain Beaufort makes some observations on the prevalent currents of the sea:

' From Syria to the Archipelago, there is a constant current to the westward, slightly felt at sea, but very perceptible near the shore, along this part of which it runs with considerable but irregular velocity: between Adratchan cape and the small adjacent island, we found it one day almost three miles an hour; and the next, without any assignable cause for such a change, not half that quantity. The configuration of the coast will perhaps account for the superior strength of the current about here: the great body of water, as it moves to the westward, is intercepted by the western coast of the Gulf of Adalia; thus pent up and accumulated, it rushes with augmented violence towards Cape Khelidonia, where, diffusing itself in the open sea, it again becomes equalized.

' The cause, the progress, and the termination of this current, would form an interesting subject for future investigation. To trace its connection with the volume of water, which enters by the Strait of Gibraltar, with the influx of the currents from the Euxine, and with the effect of the Nile, and of the numerous though small rivers of Asia Minor, will require a series of corresponding observations on both sides of the Mediterranean. The counter currents, or those which return beneath the surface of the water, are also very remarkable: in some parts of the Archipelago they are at times so strong as to prevent the steering of the ship; and, in one instance, on sinking the lead, when the sea was calm and clear, with shreds of buntin of various colours attached at every yard to the line, they pointed in different directions all round the compass.'

The scenery in the vicinity of port Genovese is peculiarly grand. White cliffs rise perpendicularly from the sea to the height of six or seven hundred feet; the effect of which is increased by the contrast of dark pines crowning their summits: above them is seen the lofty peak of Adratchan; and in the distance are ranges of mountains even more elevated, their rough tops streaked with snow. At the mouth of a small river, which works its passage through this rocky region,

* To give an idea of the temperature here, we may state that the thermometer stood at 90° in the shade, at the latter end of July. (P. 37.)

is situated the modern village of Deliktash, signifying "the perforated rock:" a natural arch-way existing on the spot. It would appear from Strabo that a town named Olympus occupied this site: in the inscriptions seen by the present author, he found it written Ὀλυμπος (*Olympus*). Not far distant, a small volcanic flame issues from the earth, but which was said never to exhibit any of the violent convulsions usually attendant on such phænomena. Superstition asserted that the flame, or *yanar*, as it was called, would not roast meat which had been stolen. Pliny notices the place.

Most of our modern travellers, who have visited the continent, have been much disappointed at the first sight of a vineyard. They have read, when boys, "*adultâ vitium propagine altas maritat populos;*" and the inditers of novels have not painted them less luxuriantly. When, therefore, they see a spot of ground greatly inferior in beauty to an English hop-garden, which is the case in many parts of the continent, their chagrin is very natural: but, if they would take a trip to the coast of Karamania, they would find their visions realized: for 'here they are trained up to some tall tree, frequently a plum or an apricot: the tendrils reach the loftiest as well as the lowest branches, and the tree thus seems to be loaded with a double crop of fruit. Nothing can present a more delightful appearance than the intimately blended greens and the two species of fruit, luxuriantly mingled. How alluring to the parched and weary traveller in these sun-burned regions! and in none perhaps will he meet with a more hearty welcome.'

A little farther to the east, and about five miles from the shore, rises the great mountain of Takhtalu; of which the lofty peak is said to be 7800 feet above the level of the sea. Several superstitious stories were related of it by the natives; and they spoke of sounds of hollow groaning which issued from it, and which they interpreted as a summons for the elect to enter Paradise. The sounds of explosions in such regions have been noticed by other travellers in different quarters of the globe.

The remains of the city of Phaselis are very visible. Livy speaks of this place as being on the confines of Lycia and Pamphylia: but it is difficult to understand why he adds, "*conspicitur prima terrarum Rhodum a Ciliciâ petentibus.*" (Lib. xxxvii. c. 23.) Captain Beaufort does not notice this circumstance: but the words, as well as the context, seem to imply a much more conspicuous promontory than the small peninsula on which the ruins are now said to be discovered. We do not know of any disagreement among modern geographers

graphers on the point. The whole of the south of Lycia may indeed be said to form a vast promontory, or projection, into the sea; and, as Phaselis is on the eastern side of it, that might be *the first point of Lycia* which was seen by the navigator from Cilicia: though it will be recollected that the promontory of Anemurium, much farther to the east, would be the more likely to arrest the notice of the Cilician sailor first, if the word *terrarium* be received in its wider sense. Considerable remains of a theatre are perceptible here: but it appears to have been of a ruder and probably more antient construction than some others on the coast; and the sea has made such inroads on the shore, that we may probably say in a few years more, "*ipsæ periere ruinae*." Sarcophagi* were lying on the shore, exhibiting very delicate workmanship: but, after the interval of a year, Captain Beaufort, on his return to the same place, found them nearly effaced by the attrition of the pebbles; so rapid was the work of destruction.

Capt. B. had not proceeded much farther to the east, when his ulterior progress was arrested by civil commotions in the Turkish provinces on the coast; and humanity induced him to take some fugitive Turks on board his ship, in order to save their lives, when their pursuers were in sight. In consequence of some circumstances connected with this adventure, he retraced his former course, visited the island of Cos, Cnidus, Boodroom, (probably the antient Halicarnassus,) and some other places. Our limits forbid us to follow him in this retrograde movement; and we must rejoin him in the spring of 1812, when he recommenced his observations from Cape Avova to the east of Phaselis, the spot at which he had terminated them in the preceding year. Here he met with the indefatigable Mr. Cockerell, who had crossed the Archipelago in a small Greek vessel which he hired at Athens, and had already coasted a part of Lycia in her, under circumstances of much hazard. This gentleman was now induced to join Capt. Beaufort in his cruize of observation.

Behind Cape Avova, the author places the Thebes or Lyrnessus of Strabo; whence a chain of mountains extends to the north, which with more certainty he sets down as the antient Mount Climax. The road along the beach coincided closely with the account of Arrian, when speaking of Alex-

* The lids of the Sarcophagi on this coast are formed of one stone, and generally shaped like a Gothic arch. At Phaselis, however, they were mostly flat, and on each was a recumbent figure in low relief.

ander's march from Phaselis, who must have taken advantage of a reflux of the sea occasioned by strong north winds, to pass certain rocky points in shallow water. Capt. Beaufort's ideas, therefore, correspond with those of Arrian relative to these depressions of the sea, and their causes; and we should infer, from this coincidence of the present shore with the description of it by an antient author, that the nature of it was such as to resist those attacks of the sea which were so destructive in the neighbourhood of Phaselis. If it were formed of yielding materials, the coincidence would have been only accidental, and not of any great weight.

The city of Adalia, situated where the coast again turns to the east, (having for some time taken a northerly direction,) is a place of some consideration; containing about eight thousand inhabitants, in the proportion of two Turks to one Greek. It had been the scene of civil contests in the preceding year, and matters were yet in an unsettled state; which rendered the appearance of a British ship of war, where none had possibly been ever seen before, an object of suspicion. Perhaps, however, these fears operated to procure for our countrymen more attention than they might otherwise have experienced. The author seems to put a fair but not a flattering interpretation on the nature of an oriental *present* :

‘ The Bey dispatched his messenger to ask permission to send on board a present. The exchange, or rather traffic of presents is such an established custom in all parts of the East, that to avoid it without giving offence is extremely difficult. When possible, however, I endeavoured to elude this practice; because it was not always convenient to make a suitable return; and still more, because in every present from a Turk to a Christian there is a something insulting implied. When a foreign minister is to be introduced at the Ottoman court, the embassy is stopped in the outer apartments of the Seray; and when announced to the despot, his literal expression is — “Feed and clothe those Christian dogs, and then bring them into my presence.” Such is the real meaning of the dinner and pelisses given to ambassadors and their suites; and something similar, though more or less covered according to circumstances, is blended with every present.’

A conference which succeeded must have been an amusing scene, on account of the unnecessary apprehensions of the Pasha; ‘whose mind,’ says Capt. B., ‘was evidently ill at ease, while I remained on his sofa; he seemed to imagine that I had a firman in my pocket for his deposition, and every time that I moved, significant looks were exchanged between him and his attendants.’

The situation of Adalia is described as beautiful; the streets rising one above another from a small harbour, like the steps of a theatre. It is much to be regretted that the British officers were prevented from examining the antiquities which the place contained, and of which report spoke highly: but the jealousy of the Pasha, and his fears of offending the Porte under existing circumstances, by infringing any of its ordinances, rendered such an inspection impracticable. Some mutilated inscriptions seem to place the date of the walls, at least where they had been adorned with Corinthian columns near one of the old gates, in the time of Adrian.

It is somewhat difficult to ascertain whether the modern Adalia occupies the site of the Olbia or the *Attalia* of Strabo. Etymology would undoubtedly decide for the latter: but a comparison of present appearances with antient description induces Capt. Beaufort to follow D'Anville in preferring the former. An intelligent traveller on the spot, with Strabo in his hand, is far more capable of settling such a question than we can pretend to be; and it remains only for us to say that the testimonies here produced are of considerable weight. If Adalia, then, be the antient Olbia, the town of Laara, or rather the ruins so called, about five miles distant from the former place, may fairly be deemed the Attalia of Strabo. The following fact noticed at this Laara is curious:

'One remarkable circumstance was observed here; an old water-course, which by the continual deposition of sediment, has actually crept upwards, in the shape of a wall. This self-raised aqueduct is in some places nearly three feet high; the substance is a light porous stone, and contains small pieces of petrified reeds and sticks. So rapidly does the sediment become indurated, that some recent specimens of it were collected on the grass, where the stony crust was already firm, though the verdure of the leaf had yet but imperfectly withered. The singularly petrescent quality of this water, may lend some weight to the idea ventured in the foregoing chapter, as to the cause of the projecting lip to the cliffs, over which it was suggested that the *Cataractes* might have fallen.'

The mention of the river Cataractes in this passage alludes to an argument which the author had drawn from it, in settling the question of the former name of Adalia.

The rivers Cestrus and Eurymedon have both bars at their mouths, covered with water so shallow that they are passable only by small boats; a fact which proves the great changes that this coast has undergone in the lapse of fifteen centuries. With respect to the former, perhaps antient authors afford less certainty in proof of such an alteration:
but

but it is evident that the Eurymedon had a free passage to the sea, as well from the battle fought by Cimon the Athenian against Tithraustes or Ariomandes, as, by implication, from Livy, lib. 37. 23. Yet it does not appear to us to be clear that the Rhodian fleet, which defeated Hannibal, actually 'put into this river.'* They did, indeed, obtain intelligence from the people of Aspendus; and hence it may be inferred that they pushed up as far as that city: but of this we have only a probability.

To the east of the Climax, the features of the coast undergo a great change; and, instead of the cliffs of Lycia, with the flat but high country about Adalia, only a belt of sand-hills was now seen, protecting broad swampy plains from the sea.

We must hasten on to the antient Sidé, which abounds with objects interesting to the inquisitive traveller. As it is now wholly deserted, the author re-asserts its right to its own original appellation, instead of the barbarous misnomers of Esky or old Adalia, and Skandalor. It stands on a low peninsula, and was surrounded by walls, of which those that face the land were of excellent workmanship, and still exhibit considerable remains:

'The theatre is the most striking feature of Sidé: at the distance of a few miles from the shore, we had mistaken it for a lofty Acropolis, rising from the centre of the town: and as it is by far the largest and the best preserved of any that came under our observation in Asia Minor, a short account of its form and dimensions may be acceptable to the reader, who will, it is hoped, excuse any want of perspicuity in details which are so foreign to the general pursuits of a seaman.

'Situating on a gentle declivity, the lower half only of the theatre has been excavated in the ground; the upper half is a great structure of masonry. It is shaped like a horse-shoe, being a segment of a circle of about 220 degrees; or, in other words, the circumference is one-ninth greater than a semicircle. The exterior diameter is 409 feet, that of the area 125, and the perpendicular height from the area to the uppermost seat is 79 feet. It contains forty-nine rows of seats, in two series; twenty-six below, and twenty-three above the *Diazomatos* † or broad platform,

* Capt. Beaufort refers us to Livy and Plutarch; there, however, the Cestrus is not mentioned, nor does any account of that river occur to us in either of those writers. We have said that the mention of the Eurymedon in the former author does not afford any certainty with regard to its original state: but the passage in Plutarch is decisive of such a change. Capt. B. cites Mela and Strabo to prove the same fact relative to the river Cestrus.

† This term is borrowed from an inscription on the theatre of *Patara*.

which forms a gallery of communication round the interior. This gallery, and its parallel corridor, which is vaulted and carried round the whole extent of the building, are on a level with the surface of the ground at the back of the theatre, and with which they communicate by twenty-three arched passages or vomitories. Another but smaller corridor surrounds the thirteenth row of the upper division of seats, and opens to it by seven doors: and these two corridors are connected together by seven staircases, branches of which continue up to the top of the building.

'The internal communication is formed by narrow flights of steps, each half the height of the seats. They are disposed in equi-distant radii; ten of them descending from the diazomatos to a platform, which intervenes between the lowest row of seats and the area; and twenty-one flights ascending to another platform, which encircles the summit of this splendid fabric.

'The seats are of white marble, and admirably wrought; they are $16\frac{1}{2}$ inches high, and $32\frac{1}{2}$ broad; but as they project over each other $8\frac{1}{2}$, the breadth in the clear is only 24 inches. The front of each row, which was occupied by the spectators when seated, is raised an inch, so as to leave a free passage to each person's place, and also to serve as a channel for the rain water. Now supposing that the ancients sat as we do, with the legs pendent, and not crossed under them like the modern Greeks and Turks (as Dr. Chandler seems to have thought *), and therefore taking eighteen inches as sufficient for each person to occupy, this theatre would contain 13,370 persons, when regularly seated; but, in crowded exhibitions, many could sit on the flights of small steps, or could stand on the upper platform, as well as at the back of the broad diazomatos, without incommoding those behind them; these may be estimated at 1870 more, and would altogether make the enormous aggregate of 15,240 spectators.'

The capacity of this edifice is certainly not equal to that of Verona, which it is presumed could have contained eight thousand more spectators; and still less is it to be compared with the Coliseum, which is said to have held nearly five times more. The structure must nevertheless have been prodigiously large. We suppose the calculations respecting the possible contents of these two amphitheatres to have been formed on the same proportion that Capt. Beaufort gives, of 18 inches in front of the seat for each individual.

After this long extract, we must impose on ourselves silence relative to the other objects which engaged the author's attention at this place. The Manavgat, or ancient Melas, is without a port, the coast being only a straight beach of sand: but Strabo attaches a harbour to it, and there is no reason to suppose that he alluded to an artificial one; though this coast offers many examples of them in the ruins of piers, and

* *Travels in Asia-Minor*, chap. lxi.

other securities for shipping, designed either to improve nature or to supply her deficiencies.

Alaya, which is presumed to be the antient *Coracesium*, is surrounded by ruined villages, castles, and churches, which appeared to be comparatively of recent date; and the vestiges of antiquity were neither very numerous nor of an interesting character. The cliffs of the peninsula, on which it stands, are from five to six hundred feet above the sea, and continue equally perpendicular to seventy feet below it. Omitting several intermediate places, among which is *Selinus*, afterward *Trajanopolis*, we again drop our anchor off the promontory of *Anemurium*. Nothing very remarkable was found within the walls: but without them were the ruins of a city of the dead, fairly styled by Capt. B. a *Neoropolis*, so numerous were the tombs of which it was composed; and of such infinitely more durable workmanship must they have been than the houses of the living, that they have survived, though the latter had wholly disappeared. At *Makry* and *Myra*, the tombs had consisted of excavated catacombs, the entrances closed by a slab of rock. At *Patara*, *Phaselis*, &c., the sarcophagus was more or less ornamented with sculpture, and, as we have already observed, differed in form from the majority of those that are known to us. Here, the sepulchres were built like small houses, divided into chambers for the dead, and for the mourners: but still more singular was the total absence of inscriptions, or of any vestiges of such records. These forms were not exclusively confined to each place, but their prevalence at each marked the distinction.

The castle of *Anamour*, standing on the edge of the sea, much resembles (according to the engraving) some of our old castles, especially in *Wales*, and has indeed a considerable degree of likeness to that of *Conway*. Near to it is a river, not above fifty yards wide, presumed to be the *Arymagdus* of *Ptolemy*. The sites of many antient places which succeed, to the east, where ruins were discovered, are placed more from conjecture than much local examination, until we come to cape *Cavallero*; which is the last and highest of those noble promontories that project from this coast: — ‘its white marble cliffs rising perpendicularly from the sea to the altitude of six and seven hundred feet. The contortions of the strata (says Capt. B.) in these cliffs are so curious, that I have been tempted to give a sketch, hastily made, of one spot, where the face of the rock is horizontally divided, and the inflected lines of the lamina in the upper and lower divisions so nearly correspond, that,

were the idea any thing short of absurd, it would appear as if the lower part had been lifted up and inverted.'

To the eastward, the higher mountains recede towards the interior: a series of low points then follows; and the aspect of the whole coast becomes materially changed.

The ruins of Seleucia are very considerable in the extent of ground which they occupy: but most of the inscriptions on sepulchral monuments appeared to be of a later date than in many other places of the same coast, as the figure of the cross attached to them testified. While in this position, Capt. Beaufort gave chase to a Mainot pirate-vessel, but she escaped him. In the preceding year, however, he had made prize of one; and when, on conveying her to Malta, the prisoners were interrogated there in the Court of Vice-Admiralty, 'these legitimate but profligate descendants of the Spartans' boldly avowed themselves to be pirates. This story reminds us forcibly of a passage in Thucydides, expressive of the general custom of piracy among the maritime cities of Greece, in her earliest times; the partial continuance of it, even to those in which he lived, which formed undoubtedly the most glorious æra of the Grecian republics; and the little shame exhibited by those who were questioned about their predatory profession. We quote the latter words of the clause relating to this subject. Οὐκ ἔχοντός πο αἰσχύνην τούτω τῷ ἔργῳ, φέροντος δέ τι καὶ δόξης μᾶλλον. δηλοῦσι δὲ τῶν τε ἡπειρωτῶν τινες ἔτι καὶ νῦν, δις κόσμος καλῶς τοῦτο δρᾶν, καὶ δι καλαῖοι τῶν ποιητῶν, τὰς πύσεις τῶν καταπλεόντων, πανταχόθεν ὁμοίως ἑρωτῶντες, ἐι λησαί εἰσιν ὥς οὔτε ἂν πυνθάνονται ἀπαξιούντων τὸ ἔργον, δις ᾗ ἐπιμελὲς εἶη εἰδέναι, οὐκ ὀνειδίζόντων. (Lib. i. c. 5.)

Capt. B. tells us that a regularly organized system of piracy now prevails in the district of Maina; the number of the vessels, or armed row-boats, fluctuating between twenty and thirty: that all flags are equally their prey; 'and that the life or death of the captured crew is merely a question of convenience.' Mr. Walpole, however, has observed, on the testimony of Mr. Morritt, who visited the Morea*, that the spirit of piracy appears now to be in some degree softened by commercial pursuits: a fact which he deduces from comparing the description of the modern traveller with one that was given by a writer who was his predecessor by two hundred years. It is difficult to say what the value of this comparison may be, unless we could enter into the character

* See Walpole's *Memoirs on Turkey*, preface, page xv., and Mr. Morritt's *Journey through the Maina*, *ibid.* p. 34. Mr. Morritt travelled in 1795.

of the earlier traveller, and see whether all the causes of his apprehensions were real, or partially drawn from his own imagination.

Pursuing his course to the east, the author observed all such objects of antiquity as his professional avocations would allow him to notice, and carefully compared them with the descriptions of antient geographical writers. In this way he had proceeded to within a few leagues of the coast of Syria, warm in his purpose, and delighting himself with the prospect of entering on a part of the coast which surpassed in interest all that he had hitherto explored, when his pleasing expectations were frustrated by a savage attempt to murder him and his companions, as recorded in the annexed passage.

‘ On the 20th of June, while embarking the instruments from a little cove to the westward of Ayas, we perceived a number of armed Turks advancing towards the boat; but Turks always carry arms, and there was no reason to suppose that this party had any other object than curiosity. Indeed, several of the officers were at the time dispersed in the neighbourhood, accompanied by the villagers; some of whom, about an hour before, had shewn the most good humoured assiduity in pointing out to me the inscriptions on the tower and other places; and their conduct to the watering boats, the preceding evening, had led to no kind of distrust.

‘ As they approached, however, an old Dervish was observed haranguing them; and his frantic gestures, with the reiterated shouts of “Begone,” “Infidel,” and other offensive expressions, left the hostility of their intentions no longer doubtful. The interpreter was absent with the officers, and all my little store of friendly words and signs seemed to irritate rather than to appease them. To quit the place, therefore, seemed the most probable means of preventing a fray; and as the boat was ready, we quietly shoved off. The mob now began to level their muskets; their voices assumed a shriller tone; and, spurred on by the old fanatic, they rushed forward. The boat was not yet clear of the cove, and if they had succeeded in reaching the outer points, our retreat would have been cut off; it was, therefore, full time to check their progress—the unexpected sight of my fowling-piece had, for a moment, that effect—but, as they again endeavoured to close, I fired over their heads. That expedient saved us. They immediately halted—most of them fell on the ground—the dastardly Dervish ran away—and we had gained sufficient time to get the boat’s head round, and almost disentangled from the rocks—when one ruffian, more resolute than the rest, sprang forward to a rock, which, covering his person, allowed him to take deliberate aim: his ball entered near my groin, and taking an oblique course, broke the trochanter of the hip-joint. Had the others followed his example, all the boat’s crew must have been destroyed; but fortunately, they had been

so intimidated by my fire, that we were beyond the reach of their's by the time they rose from the ground. The pinnacle was within signal distance; she was called down; and, before I fainted from the loss of blood, I had the satisfaction of sending her round to rescue the scattered officers, and to protect the small boat, which waited for them to the eastward of the castle: but, before the pinnacle could reach that place, Mr. Olphert, a remarkably fine young man, who was midshipman of their boat, had fallen a sacrifice to the same party of assassins!

The Captain's wound was highly dangerous, especially in the climate of the Levant; and, although a cure was effected after many months of tedious confinement and painful exfoliation, we regret to say that the intelligent author was precluded from continuing his survey, and consequently from contributing farther to the geographical knowledge of the public.

We cannot close this interesting book without noticing its numerous vignettes, containing views, plans, architectural specimens, &c.; which, although on a small scale, are executed with such clearness that they afford very considerable illustration to the narrative.

ART. VI. *Thoughts on the Resumption of Cash-payments by the Bank*; and on the Corn-bill, as connected with that Measure: in a Letter addressed to the Right Honourable the Chancellor of the Exchequer. By A. H. Chambers, Banker, Bond-Street. 8vo. pp. 38. Egerton. 1819.

ART. VII. *The Soul of Mr. Pitt*. By William Dunn. 8vo. pp. 16. Printed by Valpy.

ART. VIII. *An Inquiry into the State of the Currency of the Country, its Defects and Remedy*. 8vo. pp. 56. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

ART. IX. *An Essay on Money*. By Charles Robert Princep, Esq. M. A. 8vo. pp. 154. 5s. Ridgway.

ART. X. *A Letter to the Right Honourable Robert Peel, M. P.* for the University of Oxford, on the pernicious Effects of a variable Standard of Value, especially as it regards the Condition of the Lower Orders and the Poor-Laws. By one of his Constituents. 8vo. pp. 102. 3s. 6d. Murray. 1819.

TWENTY-TWO years have now elapsed since the Bank of England was authorized by Government to suspend the payment of its notes; and we have heard it affirmed that Mr. Fox, when apprized of that event on the day of suspension, (25th February, 1797,) declared his apprehension that "the Bank would never resume cash-payments." Even with-

out adopting this opinion in all its extent, we must admit that the period of resumption seems by no means near; and that to reason on the probable time of its arrival is a matter of considerable perplexity, whether we look to the existing difficulties of the commercial world, or to the repeated but abortive attempts at a return to cash-payments that have been made since the conclusion of peace. In 1815, the prompt termination of hostilities and the cessation of government-remittances to the Continent, resulting from the contributions imposed on France, produced a rapid improvement in the exchange, which till then had been very unfavourable to us; and in 1816 the general diminution of issues from country-banks lessened so materially the quantity of our circulating medium, as actually to turn the continental exchanges in our favour: a circumstance without example since the year 1798. Hopes were now entertained that the Bank might find itself in the situation so long desired in vain; because the resumption of cash-payment requires not only, according to common supposition, a sufficiency of the precious metals to answer all demands on that establishment for its notes, but the power of continuing, without material diminution, the important accommodation which it affords to the mercantile world in the shape of discounts. This cheering expectation was farther confirmed by the rise of stocks in 1817, and by the consequent abundance of money among our great capitalists: but our hopes were disappointed, partly by the necessity of paying for large imports of foreign corn to make up the deficiency of the harvest in 1816, and partly by the temptation to send abroad money for investment in the funds of foreign countries, which gave an interest of 6 or 7 per cent. It was trusted, however, that these foreign loans would not continue; and that, in the case of France, the great borrower, they would reach their *terminus* on the assembling of the allied potentates at Aix-la-Chapelle: a conviction so firmly entertained by those illustrious personages, that an agreement was made to receive from Messrs. Baring and Hope a large instalment (we have understood, 3,000,000*l.* sterling) of the last French contribution in specie, instead of resorting to the more circuitous mercantile expedients for accomplishing a government-remittance; — we mean the export of merchandise and the transfer of bills of exchange. The aspect of political affairs was tranquillizing; and neither the allied sovereigns nor their advisers entertained an apprehension that the removal, in specie, of the sum in question would be materially felt in either Holland or France. Yet the case proved very different: no sooner was the specie withdrawn than
money

money became scarce, the funds experienced a great fall both at Paris and Amsterdam, the *bonâ fide* holders of stock incurred a serious loss, and the speculators were ruined. Commercial failures, which in France and Holland are much more rare than in this country of ardent enterprise and long credit, now occurred in great numbers; a general fall took place in mercantile commodities; and the public discontent thus excited was, in all probability, a main cause of the late unexpected change in the French ministry.

We must next consider the effects of these unpleasant occurrences on the money-system of England; and here we find that, though for a very obvious reason we are inaccessible in one point, (the removal of specie,) no nation is more exposed to suffer from the embarrassments of her neighbours in all that relates to mercantile credit. Large sums are always due from one commercial country to another; and the convulsion that spreads alarm over the Exchange of Hamburg or Amsterdam excites no feeble sensation in that of London. A suspension of payments took place in the beginning of the year among several of our merchants who were engaged in different lines of business; and, in one instance of unusual magnitude, the Bank appears to have come forwards with a loan, not from an idea that such interventions are proper, but in the dread that a bankruptcy, had it ensued in the case in question, would have proved the first link in a chain of disasters equal to those which followed each other in such gloomy succession in 1810 and 1811. All this occurred shortly before the meeting of Parliament; and those persons, who are apprized how many of our mercantile establishments are dependent on their credit, were perfectly aware that the present was not the season for the resumption of cash-payments: in other words, that our merchants, always ready to trade to the extent of their capital, and not unfrequently to exceed it, were wholly unable to dispense with the additional millions retained in circulation by exempting the Bank from cash-payments.

After these preliminary observations, we proceed to make a few remarks on the pamphlets before us; all of which have been called forth by the existing state of our money-system, and are, perhaps, the fore-runners of a list of publications which may rival the noted Bullion-discussion eight years ago. We begin with the *Thoughts on the Resumption of Cash-payments*; the work of a practical man, and indicative certainly of no great stretch of theoretic knowledge. Protesting that he has personally very little interest in the question, Mr. Chambers undertakes to combat the current arguments for

the resumption; and to set in rather an alarming light the great diminution that would take place in our circulating medium, were the Bank to be compelled to pay in cash. Forty days may be called the medium term of bills discounted at the Bank; and, as a bank-note changes hands at least once in a day, 'if you lessen (says Mr. C.) the extent of discounts by one million, you lessen the actual circulation by forty millions.' There is, however, a degree of fallacy in this assertion; the rapid transitions from hand to hand having no connection with discount, and being applicable to money of all kinds, however obtained. The argument should have been that the *quantum* of our circulating medium is so nicely adjusted to the actual wants of the trading world, that the deprivation of an apparently small sum would be productive of serious inconvenience; and that the Bank must not be enjoined to do that which would necessarily limit its issues, until, as in 1817, the abundance of money in the market be acknowledged, and even placed beyond doubt by the state of the foreign exchanges and by a rise of stocks. The rest of Mr. C.'s remarks are not calculated to fix the attention of our readers: he speculates (p. 31.) on cultivating our lands by the spade instead of the plough; and he concludes by ridiculing the terrors of our national debt, comparing it to what he deems the imaginary sea-serpent of the American shores.

The pamphlet bearing the quaint title of *The Soul of Mr. Pitt* appears as the production of a Mr. Dunn; who is very anxious that a part of our national debt should be thrown into circulation in transferable debentures of 100l. or more; forming a property as minutely subdivided, and as easy of disposal, as Exchequer-bills or India-bonds. This project was, it seems, submitted to Mr. Vansittart; who took occasion (April 10th, 1818,) to observe in the House of Commons that, "without meaning to say that no case could arise in which it might not be expedient to convert the capital of our debt into a floating security, he did object to the adoption of Mr. Dunn's plan at present; because he conceived that, while there were so many Exchequer-bills in the market, either those bills or the proposed debentures must fall in value." To this very obvious objection on the part of our finance-minister, we would beg leave to add our opinion that, as far as London is concerned, the extent of benefit would not be considerable, whether we look to the accommodation of trade or the rise of stock, because the monied interest in the metropolis has already an ample supply of securities in the portable shape recommended by Mr. Dunn. The case, we admit, would be somewhat different in our provincial towns and foreign settlements; where,
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from the impracticability of making a transfer on the spot, the owner of funded property may be prevented from a speedy appropriation of his capital; and the French government, aware of this inconvenience, have very lately proposed the opening of public stock-books in their provincial towns, with the view of familiarizing the people in all parts of the country to government-securities. Another point deserving the attention of our financiers is the issuing of debentures, prospectively, for the large sums of interest due on the national debt in the months of January, July, April, and October: which would prevent a double inconvenience; first the scarcity of money generally felt when these quarterly payments are in preparation; and, in the next place, the overflow that occurs for some time after their issue.

Of the third of these tracts, intitled an *Inquiry into the State of the Currency*, we must observe that it is a publication much more precise in its object and clear in its composition; the author declining to enter into the general merits of the Bank-suspension-act, and confining himself to tabular statements and explanations connected with the metallic parts of our currency. Before the discovery of America, silver bore a higher value relatively to gold than at present, 12 ounces of the former being equal to one ounce of the latter: but, the product of the American mines being chiefly in silver, it is calculated that the quantity of silver bullion now brought annually into the market is fully forty times as great as the quantity of gold; an excess which would soon produce a corresponding depreciation of silver, were not a great part of the latter prevented from ever coming into the shape of coin by being used in plate or ornamental manufacture. The consequence is, that at present, and for many years back, 15 or 15½ ounces of silver have been equal in value to one ounce of gold: — but our late coinage-act in 1816, while it recognised the existence of this relative value in the market, proceeded on the supposed practicability of retaining a seignorage or charge for coining to the extent of 6 or 7 per cent: on the silver; an attempt which, in the opinion of this writer, was fundamentally wrong, and calculated to create new irregularities in our money-system. He endeavours to enforce this remark by statements of the relative value of gold and silver on the continent of Europe for a number of years past, as well as by a very clear summary (p. 20.) of the relative value of gold and silver among ourselves in the last three years. Here we cannot help observing how singular it is that, without any reference to the effect of paper-money, the fluctuation of the metals has been so considerable that, in one part of the

year,

year, 15.39 ounces of silver should be sufficient to buy an ounce of gold, while, in another, 16.11 should be requisite; a difference of nearly 5 per cent.

The writer next proceeds to explain the temptations to tamper with our coin in its existing state, and shews that nearly two per cent. can be made by exchanging gold for silver without trespassing against the law; while to him who runs the hazard of illegally coining silver, the clear advantage is 6 per cent. No department of political economy is more intricate than the doctrine of money; a truth which is abundantly exemplified in the endless difference of opinion on the present value of our bank-notes, and is impressively recorded in the fluctuations of our coinage above a century ago, when bank-notes were scarcely in existence. The Inquirer concludes by proposing several alternatives with regard to our coin; particularly that of waving the claim of seignorage, and issuing silver coin at a rate scarcely exceeding its market-price. Of the conduct of the Bank he says very little: but he inserts a table, which, brief as it is, places in a very clear light the relative value of our paper-currency to gold during six years of the twenty-two that have elapsed since the suspension of cash-payments.

Years.		Value of our Bank Notes relatively to Gold.	Years.		Value of our Bank Notes relatively to Gold.
1800	-	1.092 to 1	1813	-	1.425 to 1
1805	-	1.027	1816	-	1.001 ⁶ / ₁₀₀
1810	-	1.181	1818	-	1.059

It hence appears that, in the year 1813, our bank-notes were at a discount of more than 40 per cent.; while in 1816 they rose within a trifling fraction of *par*.

Mr. Princep's *Essay on Money* is a grave and logical disquisition, which takes up the subject *ab ovo*, and treats successively of the origin, progress, and utility of money: with a series of observations on such abstract matters as the 'requisites of a material for money,' 'the advantages and disadvantages of the material chosen,' and other topics of equal attraction; all undertaken, as he informs us in the preface, to beguile the tedium of the 'protracted morning of a legal life.' Without questioning the ingenuity of his distinctions, or the accuracy of his conclusions, we must frankly apprise him that the readers of such elaborate researches are not very numerous. *Le public*, says a French writer, *est avide de faits*; and we will venture to predict that,

that, for one reader who shall travel through the whole of Mr. Princep's pamphlet, a dozen at least will be satisfied with the preface and the sprightly parallel at the conclusion; where our old-fashioned coin is compared to the lamps fed by oil, which, till within these few years, were the depositories of our nocturnal illumination; while our paper-currency is assimilated to those newly adopted gas-lights, which, though more brilliant and less costly, are more liable to sudden extinction.

We come lastly to the well known *Letter to Mr. Peel*, which is evidently the production of an able pen, but which would, doubtless, have received additional polish at the hands of its author if he had anticipated the flattering manner in which it was to be held up to public notice.* At present, it is without the benefit of subdivision or arrangement; consisting of a succession of ideas, which are enlightened certainly, and indicative of extensive reading, but which are little improved by connection, and recorded apparently as they arose in the mind of the writer. He discovers all that familiarity with our historical and clerical authors which we should expect in a member of an English university†; and, in the sequel of his essay, a greater acquaintance with the tracts published on the Bullion-question, as well as in some passages (pp. 46, 56, 57, &c.) a more direct knowledge of the habits of men of business, than we could have anticipated to proceed from his retired abode. Without disapproving the extent of sacrifice incurred in our great contest with France, and with an evident disposition to sanction the course of policy pursued during the war, the author attacks with great severity our present Chancellor of the Exchequer; condemning equally the resolutions moved by him on the Bullion-question in May 1811, and the arguments by which he has since endeavoured to justify the continuance of the Bank-restriction. Other parts of the pamphlet relate to the progressive and even rapid increase of bank-notes since the middle of the last century; to their effect in depreciating the value of money; and to the extent of injury sustained not only by the annuitant or proprietor of money, but by the land-holder, by the clergyman who is dependent on his tithes, and by many other classes of the community. The

* We allude to Mr. Tierney's encomium of this pamphlet in the House of Commons during a debate on the Bank-question, in one of the early days of February last.

† Dr. Coplestone has been named as the author; and a second letter is advertized as preparing.

author dwells also with commendable sympathy and anxiety on the privations thus incurred by the mass of agricultural labourers, and considers it as the main cause of the alarming increase of our poor-rates. He combats the arguments of those who allege that depreciation is no serious evil; and he contends, with the great majority of intelligent and reflecting persons, that it is one of the greatest misfortunes that can befall a country. 'If government (he says) cannot at once stem the current, let them at least beware of obstructing those natural outlets through which the overcharged waters are struggling to make their way.'

The latter part of the pamphlet is appropriated to the exposure of certain prevailing errors on the subject of money; such as the notion that there is at the end of the year a balance or final settlement between two countries, as between two individuals; and that the exchange between one country and another can vary so much as 10 or 12 per cent., without some latent defect in the currency of either. The possibility of such a variation was much argued, eight years ago, in the Bullion-discussions; as if it were not perfectly clear that so large a difference can be only apparent; and that the active minds employed in bullion and exchange transactions would speedily reap the profit of so rich a harvest, by transporting specie from the country in which it was cheap to that in which it was dear. Prohibitory laws regarding the export of coin are, it is well known, of very little avail when opposed by the ingenuity of these gentlemen: but, even without transgressing them in the least, there is an easy mode of restoring the apparently disturbed level by the shipment of bullion, a commodity wholly unfettered by custom-house restraints. We may therefore rest assured that whenever, as in the years 1760, 1764, 1765, &c., a material difference may seem to exist in the exchange between two countries adjacent to and at peace with each other, the solution is to be found in some omission or inaccuracy in the statement; such as the standard of one country being silver, and the other being gold; or the recorded *par* being no longer the real *par*. In France, at present, a general notion prevails that 24 francs make the *par* of exchange for a pound sterling; whereas it is and has long been 25 francs, supposing our currency to be in a sound state; and this rate was actually exemplified in 1816, when, from the limitation of bank-notes, their value had risen to an equality with metallic currency.

To the partial light thus thrown on the Bank-question by pamphlets, will soon be added the more circumstantial and comprehensive information arising from the labours of a
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Committee of the House of Commons. It would be superfluous to enter at this time on a recapitulation of the general merits of the question, the principles of which are the same as they were when it was so fully discussed in our pages in the years 1810 and 1811. We prefer, therefore, to close the present report with a notice of what has lately occurred in a neighbouring country, where very little paper-money circulates, and where neither the bank nor the government possesses credit enough to get largely into debt. The abstraction of specie in last October from Paris, to pay a part of the final contribution to the allies, led to a great demand for discounts on the bank of France; and the cash-reserve of that establishment was reduced first to 2,000,000*l.* and soon afterward to 1,600,000*l.* sterling. The debts of the bank (by which we mean its notes in circulation, and certain other responsibilities to the public,) exceeded seven millions; which shewed the possibility of a demand for specie, or, as it is technically termed, *a run*, to an extent greatly exceeding the amount of disposable funds. What course was to be adopted by the Directors? To suspend payment, even for a few weeks, would have the worst effect: to sell their stock in a losing market would be almost equally disastrous; so that they had only the alternative of limiting their discounts. This course was adopted, and the mercantile body suffered severely by it: but the very evil which it produced, *viz.* a general scarcity of money, turned the exchanges in favour of France, afforded an inducement for the re-importation of specie, and very soon replenished the coffers of the bank.

Such is the ordeal through which *our* commerce must pass, on the resumption of cash-payments; a prospect calculated not to damp our hopes of its practicability, but to make us doubly cautious about the time chosen for the adoption of so serious a measure. It is much to be regretted that a more energetic attempt to this effect was not made in 1817: but our finance-minister was perhaps apprehensive of a fall of stock, and the consequent failure of a project which he was at that time so sanguine as to entertain: *viz.* that of raising our funds to a rate which should make it an object to government to reduce the interest of the 5 and even of the 4 per cents. The steps taken for this purpose produced, like all other unnatural interferences, a prejudicial effect; and the rise of the three per cents. to 82, 83, and 84, placed in a still more striking view the higher interest of the foreign funds: thus inducing our capitalists either to export their disposable cash, or to discount bills to an extent that proved too great an encouragement to hazardous speculation. Hence, in a great

great measure, the embarrassments of the present moment: a time similar, in the low prices of merchandise, to 1799, when we had an over-stock of every thing but corn; and to the still more disquieting season of 1810, when our previous exportations had been great beyond example, and a general deficiency ensued in the remittances from abroad. We cannot but express a hope that the adoption, some years hence, of Serjeant Onslow's bill for the repeal of the restriction on the rate of interest will be attended with considerable relief to commerce; by inducing capitalists, who at present confine themselves to the stocks or to mortgage, to advance a portion of their funds to their mercantile friends; enabling the latter to go into the market with ready money, and thus exempting the manufacturer from the necessity of giving those long credits which are at once unsuited to his limited capital, and ineligible from his unacquaintance with the ultimate solvency of the buyers. What means does a manufacturer, who resides in Yorkshire or Lancashire, possess for ascertaining the prudence or responsibility of a set of customers who live in London, and whom he probably does not meet personally above once in twelve months?

ART. XI. *The Philosophy of Arithmetic*; exhibiting a progressive View of the Theory and Practice of Calculation. By John Leslie, F.R.S. E. &c. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IT has been a frequent and we think a well-founded complaint, that the elementary treatises of arithmetic commonly used in schools are too exclusively practical. They content themselves for the most part with merely stating the rules, and give no clue to the general principles on which these rules are founded; not enabling the young pupil to obtain an insight into the reasons why such processes lead him to the required result. They initiate him, indeed, into the mechanical practice of the *art*, but leave him utterly ignorant of the *science* of arithmetic; and, if he should be desirous of obtaining any other authority than the bare *ipse dixit* of his teacher, no better or higher source of evidence is in general placed within his reach than the experience of its actual success in a variety of instances; — a vague and imperfect species of induction, which, as it neither rests on nor leads to any fundamental principle, cannot terminate in any conclusion which deserves the name of science. The work now before us, though it does not enter into the minutiae of practical details, appears to be intended in some measure to supply this defect; since its professed object is not merely to explain the ordinary rules

of calculation, but to teach the young student to think; and to train him in the invaluable habit of close and patient investigation, by exercising his understanding on the general properties of numbers, and leading him according to the analytical method to trace out the rules as they naturally flow from the principles thus stated.

By much the greater part of this volume has already made its first appearance in the Supplement to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*; and its present form, which is more adapted for general use, differs from the article "*Arithmetic*" in that publication chiefly in some not very material variations in the arrangement, and the occasional introduction of a greater variety of examples. The rules for the extraction of roots are given more in detail, and some additional observations on fractions are also inserted; particularly on the theory of what are called continued fractions. To announce the name of the distinguished mathematician, which appears in the title-page, will be sufficient to lead our readers to anticipate no inconsiderable merit in his performance. In fact it displays great ability, and very extensive learning and research; although we see occasional traces of a peculiarity of style for which the author is remarkable, and which is not consistent with the unadorned simplicity and perspicuity that form the primary excellence of an elementary writer. We observe also a degree of diffuseness in many portions of the book, which we ascribe partly to what appears to us the unnecessary variety of examples that are introduced, in order to illustrate certain processes which, at present at least, are merely matters of curious speculation:—but it is also, in some degree, the unavoidable consequence of every attempt to state the reasoning on which the rules of arithmetic are founded, in the cumbrous and comparatively circuitous expressions of ordinary language. Algebra has been ingeniously styled a species of short-hand; and, accordingly, one of the many advantages attending the use of this mode of notation (the most distinct and perfect system of signs ever invented for the purpose of philosophical communication) is that it brings the steps of our reasoning closer together, and, by the conciseness and accuracy of the expression, presents them more clearly and distinctly to the mind; enabling us more readily to take a comprehensive view of the whole. In the abridged form which might thus have been given to the demonstration of the rules for extracting the square and cube roots, and in explaining the theory of continued fractions, these advantages would have been particularly manifest.

It is probable, however, that Mr. Leslie conceived that he was debarred from this resource by the peculiar object of his treatise, which is confined to an explanation of the rules and processes of common arithmetic; and, indeed, in a work which is to be adapted in any degree to the prevailing forms and modes of instruction, this limitation is perhaps indispensable. Still, it is a circumstance to be regretted; and the sooner the cause of this necessity is removed, the better. We think that it might be added to the subject of complaint before mentioned, that, even in those grammar-schools in which arithmetic is admitted as a very subordinate object of attention, the principles of algebra, or universal arithmetic, are seldom if ever introduced to the notice of the pupil; so that young men are most commonly sent to college unprovided with the very simplest elements of mathematical science. It is our opinion that this is a branch of knowledge to which the attention of young people might be called, with advantage, at a much earlier period than persons generally imagine; and, though we hope often to see Professor Leslie's abilities engaged in the higher walks of science, where more glory is to be reaped than in preparing a horn-book for babes in mathematics, yet it might neither have been beneath him, nor inconsistent with the object of his production, to have taken the opportunity of calling the public attention to this important subject.

After a short historical account of the methods of notation adopted by the Greeks and Romans, of which the latter was not in any degree, and the former only very imperfectly, adapted to the purposes of calculation, Mr. L. proceeds to consider his subject under two distinct forms; first, *Palpable Arithmetic*, in which the numbers are exhibited by counters, or abbreviated representatives of the objects themselves; and, secondly, *Figurate Arithmetic*, in which the numbers are denoted by the help of certain symbols, or characters disposed in a particular order.

The general idea of what is called *Palpable* arithmetic may be easily explained by an example. Suppose that sixty-three objects are to be enumerated; if, without any principle of arrangement, we were to lay down a separate counter for each, it is evident that no distinct idea of the number would be communicated, but merely a confused notion of multitude. Let them be placed, therefore, in two rows; we shall now have thirty-one pairs, and one over. Laying down a counter for the supernumerary unit, we may proceed again to double our files, as it were, so as to form fifteen sets of four each, and one pair over. In the same manner, we may afterward

count by eights, by sixteens, &c. and thus at length reduce the number sixty-three to the expression, $2^5 + 2^4 + 2^3 + 2^2 + 2 + 1$. In a similar manner, any other number may be resolved into a certain combination of the powers of two. Thus the number eighty-six is divided into $2^6 + 0 + 2^4 + 0 + 2^3 + 2 + 0$. If, then, we have our counters disposed in cells or on bars, and it be understood that a counter in the first cell to the right denotes *unit*, in the next *two*, in the next *four*, and so on, it is evident that all numbers might be thus expressed by the use of a comparatively small quantity of counters. The number eighty-six, for example, might be thus denoted; — . — . — .; corresponding to the series of powers of two into which we have just resolved it. If we had resolved the same number into the series of powers of three which it contains, it would have run thus; $3^4 + 0 + 0 + 3 + 2$, or — . . — =. If resolved in the same manner according to the powers of eight, it would be expressed thus; $8^2 + 2 \times 8 + 6$; or, more conveniently, since six counters would thus be accumulated on the first bar or unit's place, $8^2 + 3 \times 8 - 2$; marking only so many as are wanted to complete the bar, or to render its expression equivalent to one additional counter placed on the bar immediately before it. These counters must of course be distinguished in some way, to shew that they indicate negative or subtractive numbers; and Mr. L. accordingly calls them open or deficient counters. By the use of such counters, the expression of numbers may often be considerably abridged. Thus, if the scale by which the value of the counters was estimated proceeded according to the powers of ten, as in the usual scale of figurate arithmetic, the number, 889, or $8 \times 10^2 + 8 \times 10 + 9$, might be written thus, $10^3 - 10^2 - 10 - 1$; and, in this mode of expression, four marks are sufficient to denote a number which would require twenty-five exclusively additive counters. The method, by which the transformation is effected, is obviously the same as that by which the arithmetical complement of a logarithm is frequently substituted for the logarithm itself; a substitution which is often attended by considerable practical advantage, in enabling us to supersede the operation of subtraction which would otherwise be necessary. The Professor recommends the adoption of this mode of expression, whenever any number may thus be denoted by a smaller number of counters; or, which comes to the same thing in figurate arithmetic, by the employment of smaller digits: but we are far from agreeing with him in his estimate of the benefit to be derived from this method. The use of the smaller digits is indeed a convenience: but this advantage is much more than

than counter-balanced by the awkward and perplexing mixture which it occasions of the two processes of addition and subtraction, and which would in our opinion be a most fertile source of error.

Having illustrated, by a great variety of examples, the mode of expressing numbers of all kinds, both integers and fractions, by means of counters varying in their value in consequence of their rank or position according to the successive powers of different indices, Mr. Leslie proceeds to shew the mode in which the simple operations of arithmetic might be performed by the help of an instrument constructed on this principle: successfully, we think, manifesting that the principle admits a much greater variety of applications than it is commonly supposed to include; and that palpable arithmetic is capable, if skillfully conducted, of being applied with considerable facility to a wide range of combinations. The *abacus* of the Romans, which appears to have been precisely an instrument of this description, may accordingly have assisted them in executing the most important practical operations of arithmetic to a material extent. To them, indeed, in consequence of their most unscientific system of notation, it must have been indispensable; and we find evidence of its constant employment among them down to the latest periods of their history, long after it had fallen into disuse among the Greeks, from whom they seem to have originally derived it. In fact, the principle, on which the calculation by means of this instrument proceeds, is identical with that of our present mode of numeration by means of the Arabic numerals; and the additional step, which it was necessary to take in order to have effected this capital improvement, consisted simply in transferring to their modes of notation the same method of arrangement according to the powers of ten, with which the art of calculation had already made them familiar: a transition so slight, and to us, who are already acquainted with this beautiful invention, apparently so obvious, that we could hardly have conceived it possible that they should fail to perceive and avail themselves of it, if the history of every other art did not furnish similar instances. The *Swan-Pan*, or computing table, of the Chinese is exactly the same instrument as the *abacus*, with the improvement of a more extensive range, and the practice of commencing the progression at any particular bar: by which means it expresses with facility the descending part of the decimal scale, and is thus admirably fitted for representing the decimal system of measures, weights, and coins, which prevails throughout that vast empire. This instrument,

accordingly, is constantly used in all the bazars and booths of Canton, and other cities; being handled, it is said, by the native traders with a rapidity and address which astonish the European factors.

It is evident, however, that this method, in its highest state of improvement, is attended with the material imperfection that it is adapted only to the actual performance, not to the *registration*, (if we may so express it) of arithmetical processes; and for this latter purpose we must have recourse to some form of what we have called *Figurate Arithmetic*, which is the subject of the second part of the treatise before us. Passing slightly over the methods of notation in use among the antients, which are now interesting chiefly as matters of historical curiosity, we proceed to the modern method, by the use of what are called the *Arabic cyphers*; of the history of which, as far as it can be traced, Professor Leslie presents us with an interesting sketch. That the Arabians received their knowledge of this mode of notation from the Hindoos is the common opinion, with which he coincides: but to the original introduction of the art into Europe he assigns a much later date than that to which it is generally referred. It is usually ascribed to the famous Gerbert, who was elevated to the papal chair in the concluding years of the tenth century; and who is supposed to have learnt it from the Saracens in Spain, among whom he studied arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy.

Gerbert wrote largely on Arithmetic and Geometry, and gave rules for shortening the operations with the abacus. In some manuscripts the numbers are expressed in ciphers; but they had evidently crept in through the licence of transcribers, and it would be most unwarrantable thence to conclude, as many writers have done, that Gerbert had actually the merit of introducing those characters into Europe. The same remark will extend likewise to our celebrated countrymen Roger Bacon, and John of Halifax or Holywood, and therefore styled *Sacro Bosco* in the rude Latinity of that age, who flourished indeed about three centuries later, but must have derived their information, though perhaps not directly, from the same source. Bacon wrote on the reformation of the kalendar, yet he has given no proofs of his acquaintance with the denary notation. *Sacro Bosco* composed a treatise on the sphere, which was long held as a standard work in the schools. In the latter copies of that book, numeral characters had been sometimes inserted.

The Digital Arithmetic, conjoined with the higher art of Algebra, seems to have been first brought into Europe by the zeal of Leonardo Bonacci of Pisa, a wealthy merchant who traded to the coast of Africa and the various ports of the Levant. Commercial speculations having tempted him frequently to visit those

those countries, he was induced by the love of knowledge to study thoroughly the science of calculation among the Arabians. On his return to Italy in 1202, this meritorious person composed an arithmetical treatise, which he greatly enlarged in 1228. But typography had not yet lent its magic aid to the multiplication of thought, nor do the Tuscans, though long reputed the best calculators in Italy and consequently in Europe, and to whom we owe the method of book-keeping, appear to have derived their skill from an acquaintance with the writings of Bonacci. His manuscript had lain more than two centuries neglected, till Lucas Paccioli, or de Burgo, instructed chiefly by its perusal, published successively between the years 1470 and 1494 the earliest and most extensive printed treatise on Arithmetic and Algebra.' (P. 111.)

Even after these characters were partially introduced, it appears that very imperfect and inaccurate notions prevailed respecting their real use. In particular, observes the learned Professor:

'It was not very easy to comprehend at first, the precise force of the cipher, which, insignificant by itself, only serves to determine the rank and value of the other digits. A sort of mystery, which has imprinted its trace on language, seemed to hang over the practice of numeration; for we still speak of deciphering and of writing in cipher, in allusion to some dark, or concealed art. After the digits had come to supply the place of the Roman numerals, a very considerable time probably elapsed before they were generally adopted in calculation. The modern practice of arithmetic remained unknown in England till about the middle of the sixteenth century, and the lower orders, imitating the clerks of a former age, were still accustomed to reckon by the help of their *awgrym* stones. In Shakespear's comedy of the Winter's Tale, written at the commencement of the seventeenth century, the clown, staggered at a very simple multiplication, exclaims that he must try it with counters.' (P. 114.)

This principle of numeration is exemplified by Mr. L. in treating of *Figurate* as well as of *Palpable Arithmetic*, in its application to the expression of numbers of all forms both integral and fractional, and under every possible variety in the scale of progression. To us, indeed, it appears that the extent and diversity of illustration, here introduced, were not required by the importance of the subject; since few of these scales are attended by any peculiar practical advantage, and none of them are likely to supersede that which is in common use. The only one that can be deemed of any interest in practice is the duodenary scale; which, proceeding according to the powers of a larger index, enables us to express numbers with fewer digits; and which, from the greater variety of divisors which that index admits, affords much more con-

cise and convenient expressions on the descending scale, than the received system of decimal fractions. Hence it is evident that, if a congress of mathematicians could undertake to re-model not only the notation but the language of arithmetic, they would naturally prefer the duodenary to the denary scale: but this is a species of innovation to which even the restless energies brought into action by the French revolution were unequal; and it is difficult to believe that even such a despotic enthusiast as Charles XII. of Sweden could have seriously deliberated on a scheme so visionary, and obviously impracticable.

The method of sexagesimals, introduced into the Alexandrian school by Ptolemy, is founded on a principle nearly similar to that of the modern system: but, proceeding according to the extremely rapid progression of the powers of sixty, it is by no means attended with the same facilities in calculation. To apply it in practice, it appeared indispensable to have a more extensive multiplication-table, that should include the mutual products of all the numbers from one to sixty; and such a table was actually constructed early in the seventeenth century by Philip Lansberg. It has, however, become obsolete, because the practice of sexagesimals has fallen into disuse: but Mr. Leslie has taken the pains of framing a still more extended table of products up to one hundred, which is prefixed to the present volume; and which, if rightly managed, would (he thinks) greatly abridge and expedite the most laborious arithmetical operations. To those who are under the daily or frequent necessity of going through many such tedious calculations, it cannot be doubted that the acquisition here offered might be of immense value: but, in the case of a great majority even of scientific men, it appears to us evident that a very long period must elapse before the superior facility and expedition, thus acquired in the conduct of arithmetical operations, would redeem the time and labour requisite for imposing such a burden on the memory. The author has taken the trouble (with what view we do not perceive) of making a minute survey of this table, from which he has collected the following information:

'We may observe that this table contains 14,052 digits; but, had it commenced at zero, it would have contained 16,638. In this aggregate the several digits recur in very different proportions; of the series 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9, the corresponding numbers of recurrences are 2101, 1966, 2388, 1548, 1854, 1577, 1493, 1261, 1534, and 916.'

A variety

A variety of curious speculations will be found in the remaining part of this volume, to which, if our limits permitted, we would gladly request the attention of our readers: but we must now take our leave of it, with observing that it constitutes, in our opinion, a valuable addition to our stock of elementary treatises. We hope that the Professor has not forgotten, what we are sure the public will not fail to remember, that he has several other pledges to redeem, of the same nature.

ART. XII. *Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Benjamin Franklin*, LL.D. F.R.S., &c., Minister Plenipotentiary from the United States of America at the Court of France, and for the Treaty of Peace and Independence with Great Britain, &c. &c. Written by himself to a late Period, and continued to the Time of his Death by his Grandson, William Temple Franklin. Now first published from the Original MSS., comprising the Private Correspondence and Public Negotiations of Dr. Franklin, and a Selection from his Political, Philosophical, and Miscellaneous Works. Vol. III. 4to. pp. 586. 3l. 3s. Boards. Colburn. 1818.

WE have said so much on the general character of Doctor Franklin in our reviews of the two former volumes of these memoirs, that we shall not expatiate again on that subject. The present volume, which exhibits this eminent man once more as a politician, a moralist, and a philosopher, is divided into four parts; the first of which is occupied by American politics; the second by topics of general politics and commerce; the third by a diversity of miscellaneous matter, but principally of a moral description; and the fourth by philosophical subjects.

Under the head of American politics, we find some judicious remarks relative to the American paper-money in 1764. The operations of paper-money were neither so well understood nor so extensively employed at that time, as they have been since: yet the remarks of Dr. F. on this point have not been surpassed by the light of more modern experience. At the period when they were made, a great dearth of specie prevailed in most of the provinces of America; and some substitute, as a medium of exchange, was absolutely necessary for the internal traffic of the country. The Board of Trade in England, however, at the head of which was Lord Hillsborough, set its face against the emission of American paper-money as a legal tender; and, among the reasons which were assigned for this prohibition,

it was alleged that otherwise the gold and silver would be carried out of the province, to the ruin of the country; and "that every *medium of trade should have an intrinsic value*, which paper-money has not." In answer to the allegation of the Board, "that paper-money carries the gold and silver out of the province, and so ruins the country," Dr. Franklin shews that this was a mere speculative opinion, and contradicted by the actual experience of the colonies.

'If,' says he, (p. 35.) 'carrying out all the gold and silver ruins a country, every colony was ruined before it made paper-money. But, far from being ruined by it, the colonies, that have made use of paper-money, have been, and are, all in a thriving condition. The debt indeed to Britain has increased, because their numbers, and of course their trade, have increased; for all trade having always a proportion of debt outstanding, which is paid in its turn, while fresh debt is contracted, the proportion naturally increases as the trade increases; but the improvement and increase of estates in the colonies have been in a greater proportion of debt than their debt. *New England* particularly, in 1696, about the time they began the use of paper-money, had, in all its four provinces, but 130 churches or congregations; in 1760 they were 530. The number of farms and buildings there is increased in proportion to the numbers of people; and the goods exported to them from England in 1750, before the restraint took place, were near five times as much as before they had paper-money. *Pennsylvania*, before it made any paper-money, was totally stripped of its gold and silver; though they had from time to time, like the neighbouring colonies, agreed to take gold and silver coins at higher and higher nominal values, in hopes of drawing money into, and retaining it, for the internal uses of the province. During that weak practice, silver got up by degrees to 8s. 9d. per ounce; and English crowns were called six, seven, and eight shilling pieces, long before paper-money was made. But this practice of increasing the denomination was found not to answer the end. The balance of trade carried out the gold and silver as fast as it was brought in; the merchants raising the price of their goods in proportion to the increased denomination of the money. The difficulties for the want of cash were accordingly very great, the chief part of the trade being carried on by the extremely inconvenient method of barter; when in 1723 paper-money was first made there; which gave new life to business; promoted greatly the settlement of new lands, by lending small sums to beginners on easy interest, to be repaid by instalments, whereby the province has so greatly increased in inhabitants that the export from hence thither is more than ten-fold what it then was; and by their trade with foreign colonies, they have been able to obtain great quantities of gold and silver to remit hither in return for the manufactures of this country. *New York* and *New Jersey* have also increased greatly during the same period with

with the use of paper-money ; so that it does not appear to be of the ruinous nature ascribed to it.'

The above statement evinces that it is impossible, by altering the denomination of the coin, or by any other expedient, to retain the specie in any country in which the balance of trade is against it ; or in which more may be made by sending the specie abroad to purchase commodities, than by keeping it at home for domestic use. It is also certain that, if a country be rich in commodities but poor in specie, (which was the case with the American colonies, at the time in question,) an issue of paper-money, as a substitute for the absence of specie, is not only very salutary, but will be found to operate in some measure, as in the above instances, like a new vivifying principle of prosperity.

With respect to the other reason of the English Board of Trade for restraining the issue of American paper-money, "that every *medium of trade* should have an *intrinsic value*, which paper-money has not," Dr. Franklin remarks ; (p. 37. 39.)

' However fit a particular thing may be for a particular purpose, wherever that thing is not to be had, or not to be had in sufficient quantity, it becomes necessary to use something else, the fittest that can be got in lieu of it.' — ' Gold and silver have undoubtedly some properties that give them a fitness above paper as a medium of exchange, particularly their *universal estimation* ; especially in cases where a country has occasion to carry its money abroad, either as a stock to trade with, or to purchase *allies* and *foreign succours*. Otherwise, that very universal estimation is an inconvenience which paper-money is free from, since it tends to deprive a country of even the quantity of currency that should be retained as a necessary instrument of its internal commerce, and obliges it to be continually on its guard in making, and executing at a great expence, the laws that are to prevent the trade that exports it. Paper-money well funded has another great advantage over gold and silver, its lightness of carriage, and the little room that is occupied by a great sum ; whereby it is capable of being more easily and more safely, because more privately, conveyed from place to place. Gold and silver are not *intrinsically* of equal value with iron, a metal in itself capable of many more beneficial uses to mankind. Their value rests chiefly in the estimation they happen to be in among the generality of nations, and the credit given to the opinion that that estimation will continue : otherwise, a pound of gold would not be a real equivalent for a bushel of wheat.'

We must beg leave to intimate that Dr. Franklin is not quite correct in saying that ' gold and silver are not intrinsically of equal value with iron.' He here uses the word *intrinsically* with reference only to use, and without any regard

regard to the greater quantity of labour employed in procuring gold and silver than in obtaining the same quantity of iron: but the intrinsic value of any thing is the cost of production, or the labour and capital without which it cannot be obtained. It is the different degree of labour and capital required in procuring gold and silver, which makes one of these metals equivalent to fourteen or fifteen times the quantity of the other; and it is nothing but the difference of cost that is requisite to procure these precious metals, and to procure iron or copper, which renders gold and silver of a much higher proportional value than copper or iron. When we consider the intrinsic value of an article of exchange, that value cannot be fixed by use; for use is a variable thing, and subject to the fluctuations of opinion; but, when the criterion of value is fixed by the labour and expence necessary to procure any specific product, our estimate is regulated by something more definite and permanent.

As we are now treating of the subject of paper-money, we must take notice of a fact which Dr. Franklin mentions at p. 106., and which occurred during the American war:

‘ Paper-money was in those times our universal currency. But it being the instrument with which we combated our enemies, they resolved to deprive us of its use by depreciating it; and the most effectual means they could contrive was to counterfeit it. The artists they employed performed so well, {that immense quantities of these counterfeits, which issued from the British government in New York, were circulated among the inhabitants of all the states before the fraud was detected. This operated considerably in depreciating the whole mass, first, by the vast additional quantity, and next by the uncertainty in distinguishing the true from the false; and the depreciation was a loss to all, and the ruin of many.’

At the commencement of the late French revolutionary war, one of the modes of attack, which was adopted by some *highly moral agents* of Mr. Pitt’s administration against the infidel French, was a most extensive forgery of the national paper, termed *Assignats*, which were counterfeited in London, and afterward dispersed in France. We have always maintained that nations, which are only aggregates of individuals, ought to observe towards each other the same great moral rules which are considered as binding on individuals: for the grand principles of truth and justice do not owe their sanctity to the greater or less number of the persons to whom they may be applied, but to the inherent and indefeasible *fitness of their observance to promote the well-being of universal*
man.

man. The duties, therefore, which they inculcate, are as well suited to the policy of nations as to the affairs of private people, as far as the policy of nations is directed to the general welfare. We have, unfortunately, lived to witness a very extensive forgery of Bank-of-England-paper in our time; and we have also seen a political writer of considerable powers and notoriety indirectly recommending the counterfeiting of Bank-notes, and the dispersion of those counterfeits to such a degree that they would, in one day, destroy all confidence in that kind of paper, and thus cause a sudden suspension of all the dealings between man and man. Such a measure in a commercial nation, where the ramifications of traffic and of confidence are so multiform and various, would operate on the body-politic like a paralysis, or an apoplexy in the corporeal frame of an individual. It would be, at least for a time, an extinction of the vital principle; a cessation of all the vital movements. That mind must, therefore, in our opinion, be more malignant than words can express, which could deliberately suggest the execution of such a nefarious contrivance: but it grieves us to think that the volume of Dr. Franklin's works, which is now before us, records one instance in which a similar fraud was put in practice by the British Government against the American paper-money; and we are ourselves old enough to remember when the attack of the like kind was made on the *assignats* of revolutionary France. No measure which is contrary to justice can be agreeable to a wise policy. All iniquity is ultimately foolishness.

At p. 110. we find some admirable observations on 'the increase of mankind, peopling of countries,' &c. They were written in Pennsylvania in the year 1751: but they are, for the most part, as applicable to the state of America now as they were at the time of their composition. Witness the following:

'Land being thus plenty in America, and so cheap, as that a labouring man, that understands husbandry, can, in a short time, save money enough to purchase a piece of new land, sufficient for a plantation, whereon he may subsist a family; such are not afraid to marry: for if they even look far enough forward to consider how their children, when grown up, are to be provided for, they see that more land is to be had at rates equally easy, all circumstances considered. Hence marriages in America are more general, and more generally early, than in Europe. And if it is reckoned there, that there is but one marriage *per annum* among 100 persons, perhaps we may here reckon two; and if in Europe they have but four births to a marriage, many of their marriages being late, we may here reckon eight, of which, if one-half grow up, and our marriages are made, reckoning one with another, at twenty years of age, our people must at least be doubled every twenty years.'

years. But, notwithstanding this increase, so vast is the territory of North America, that it will require many ages to settle it fully, and till it is fully settled, labour will never be cheap here, where no man continues long a labourer for others, but gets a plantation of his own; no man continues long a journeyman to a trade, but goes among those new settlers, and sets up for himself, &c. Hence labour is no cheaper now, in Pennsylvania, than it was thirty years ago, though so many thousand labouring people have been imported from Germany and Ireland. The danger, therefore, of these colonies interfering with their mother-country, in trades that depend on labour, manufactures, &c. is too remote to require the attention of Great Britain. But in proportion to the increase of the colonies, a vast demand is growing for British manufactures; a glorious market, wholly in the power of Britain, in which foreigners cannot interfere, which will increase, in a short time, even beyond her power of supplying, though her whole trade should be to her colonies.'

Dr. Franklin appears to have had as strong a conviction of the *vis procreandi*, or principle of population, as Mr. Malthus; though he was well aware that the multiplication of the human species must be limited by the means of subsistence; and, if it be so limited, to what purpose do Mr. Malthus and some of his disciples endeavour to frighten us with such alarming details respecting the multiplying principle of man, as if the population of any country could ever, in any circumstances, be increased two or three-fold beyond its means of subsistence?

'There is no bound to the prolific nature of plants or animals, but what is made by their crowding and interfering with each other's means of subsistence. Was the face of the earth vacant of other plants, it might be gradually sowed and overspread with one kind only, as for instance with fennel; and were it empty of other inhabitants, it might, in a few ages, be replenished from one nation only, as for instance with Englishmen. Thus there are supposed to be now (1751) upwards of one million of English souls in North America, though it is thought scarce 80,000 have been brought over sea, and yet perhaps there is not one the fewer in Britain, but rather many more, on account of the employment the colonies afford to manufacturers at home. This million, doubling suppose but once in twenty-five years, will, in another century, be more than the people of England, and the greatest number of Englishmen will be on this side of the water.' — 'In fine, a nation well-regulated is like a polypus; take away a limb, its place is soon supplied: cut it in two, and each deficient part shall speedily grow out of the part remaining. Thus, if you have room and subsistence enough, as you may by dividing make ten polypuses out of one, you may of one make ten nations, equally populous and powerful; or rather increase the nation ten-fold in numbers and strength.' (P. 115.)

So much good sense, and such a thorough insight into human nature and all the common affairs of life, are known to have distinguished Dr. F., that his opinions on questions of domestic policy are always highly valuable. The subsequent remarks on our English poor-rates are, therefore, well worthy of consideration. (P. 125.)

‘I think the best way of doing good to the poor is not making them easy in poverty, but leading or driving them out of it. In my youth I travelled much, and I observed in different countries, that the more public provisions were made for the poor, the less they provided for themselves, and of course became poorer. And, on the contrary, the less was done for them, the more they did for themselves, and became richer. There is no country in the world where so many provisions are established for them as in England; so many hospitals to receive them when they are sick or lame, founded and maintained by voluntary charities; so many alms-houses for the aged of both sexes; together with a solemn general law, made by the rich, to subject their estates to a heavy tax for the support of the poor. Under all these obligations are our poor modest, humble, and thankful? and do they use their best endeavours to maintain themselves and lighten our shoulders of this burthen? On the contrary, I affirm that there is no country in the world in which the poor are more idle, dissolute, drunken, and insolent. The day you passed that act,’ (for the maintenance of the poor,) ‘you took away from before their eyes the greatest of all inducements to industry, frugality, and sobriety, by giving them a dependance on somewhat else than a careful accumulation during youth and health, for support in age or sickness. In short you offered a premium for the encouragement of idleness, and you should not now wonder that it has had its effect in the increase of poverty. Repeal that law and you will soon see a change in their manners.—*Saint Monday* and *Saint Tuesday* will soon cease to be holidays. *Six days shalt thou labour*, though one of the old commandments, long treated as out of date, will again be looked upon as a respectable precept: industry will increase, and with it plenty, among the lower people; their circumstances will mend, and more will be done for their happiness by inuring them to provide for themselves, than could be done by dividing all your estates among them.’

When the above was written, the poor-rates in this country amounted to about one million and a half *per annum*; and at present they average above eight millions; so that they have experienced nearly a sextuple increase in less than half a century. If they keep increasing in the same rapid *ratio*, they will soon exceed the sum that is raised for paying the interest of the national debt; and, while it is *possible* that the national debt *may* be redeemed by the sinking-fund, the poor-rate admits of no such expedient for its alleviation. As long as it exists and human nature remains the same, it

is a tax on the industry of the community which must perpetually increase: — for how can the national industry be exerted to the utmost, when the poor-rates establish a nursery for idleness?

At page 128, &c. the author argues very forcibly against the immorality of cheating the King, or *defrauding the revenue*, which too many persons are apt to deem *no* immorality. While, perhaps, their probity will not suffer them to rob an individual, they think it is no sin to rob the community: but Dr. Franklin very justly remarks that such ‘honesty is partial only, and not general or universal.’ The public revenue is made up of the contributions of individuals; and those who evade their fair and legal share of such contributions only add so much to the impositions on the rest of the community.

In one of his papers on general politics, Dr. F. makes an assertion which, at first sight, appears very paradoxical; that ‘our labouring poor do in every year receive *the whole revenue of the nation*.’ The ingenious writer thus supports this extraordinary position: (p. 134.)

‘The rich do not work for one another. Their habitations, furniture, clothing, carriages, food, ornaments, and every thing, in short, that they or their families use and consume, is the work or produce of the labouring poor, who are and must be continually paid for their labour in producing the same. In these payments the revenues of private estates are expended, for most people live up to their incomes. In clothing and provision for troops, in arms, ammunition, ships, tents, carriages, &c. &c. (every particular the produce of labour,) much of the public revenue is expended. The pay of officers civil and military, and of the private soldiers and sailors, requires the rest; and they spend that also in paying for what is produced by the labouring poor. I allow that some estates may increase by the owners spending less than their income; but then I conceive that other estates do, at the same time, diminish by the owners spending more than their income, so that when the enriched want to buy more land, they easily find lands in the hands of the impoverished whose necessities oblige them to sell; and thus this difference is equalled. I allow also that part of the expense of the rich is in foreign produce or manufactures, for producing which the labouring poor of other nations must be paid; but then I say we must first pay our own labouring poor for an equal quantity of our manufactures or produce to exchange for those foreign productions, or we must pay for them in money, which money not being the natural produce of our country, must first be purchased from abroad, by sending out its value in the produce or manufactures of this country, for which manufactures our labouring poor are to be paid. And indeed if we did not export more than we import, we could have no money

at all. I allow, farther, that there are middle men who make a profit, and even get estates by purchasing the labour of the poor, and selling it at advanced prices to the rich; but then they cannot enjoy that profit or the incomes of estates, but by spending them in employing and paying our labouring poor in some shape or other for the products of industry. Even beggars, pensioners, hospitals, and all that are supported by charity, spend their incomes in the same manner. So that finally, *our labouring poor receive annually the whole of the clear revenues of the nation*, and from us they can have no more.' (P. 134, 135.)

The Parable against Persecution, which we find at p. 193., and which is so highly extolled by Lord Kaimes in his "Sketches of the History of Man," is taken with a few unimportant variations from the last section of Jeremy Taylor's "Liberty of Prophecy;" and Jeremy Taylor himself says that *he* took it from the writings of the Jews. All the merit which is due to Dr. Franklin in this composition, therefore, consists in giving more scriptural solemnity to the language; and thus investing with more apparent sanctity the great truth which it inculcates of charity and forbearance. The Doctor has, in fact, *parodied* the language and the manner of the Old Testament Scriptures. The following is the parable itself, which we believe that many of our readers will thank us for extracting; for, if they have not seen it before, we are convinced that they will peruse it now with considerable satisfaction. (P. 193.)

1. And it came to pass after these things that Abraham sat in the door of his tent about the going down of the sun. 2. And behold a man, bowed with age, came from the way of the wilderness leaning on a staff. 3. And Abraham rose and met him, and said unto him, Turn in I pray thee and wash thy feet, and tarry all night, and thou shalt arise early on the morrow, and go on thy way. 4. But the man said Nay, for I will abide under this tree. 5. And Abraham pressed him greatly; so he turned, and they went into the tent, and Abraham baked unleavened bread and they did eat. 6. And when Abraham saw that the man blessed not God, he said unto him, wherefore dost thou not worship the Most High God, Creator of heaven and earth? 7. And the man answered and said, I do not worship the God thou speakest of, neither do I call upon his name; for I have made to myself a God, which abideth alway in mine house, and provideth me with all things. 8. And Abraham's zeal was kindled against the man, and he arose and drove him forth with blows into the wilderness. 9. And, at midnight God called unto Abraham, saying, Abraham, where is the stranger? 10. And Abraham answered and said, Lord, he would not worship thee, neither would he call upon thy name, therefore I have driven him out from before my face into the wilderness. 11. And God said, Have I borne with him these hundred ninety and eight years, and clothed him notwithstanding his

his rebellion against me, and couldest not thou, that art thyself a sinner, bear with him one night? 12. And Abraham said, Let not the anger of the Lord wax hot against his servant: lo, I have sinned, forgive me, I pray thee. 13. And Abraham arose and went forth into the wilderness and sought diligently for the man, and found him, and returned with him to the tent; and when he had entreated him kindly, he sent him away on the morrow with gifts. 14. And God-spake again unto Abraham, saying, For this thy sin shall thy seed be afflicted four hundred years in a strange land. 15. But for thy repentance will I deliver them; and they shall come forth with power, and with gladness of heart, and with much substance.'

From the numbers of "*The Busy Body*," which we find in the miscellaneous part of this collection, and which were written when Dr. Franklin was about 23 years of age, it is evident that he had early formed that easy and perspicuous style in which he ever excelled. They display no ornament but such as appears to arise spontaneously out of the subject, and not the smallest parade either in the sentiments or the diction. His mind was so constituted, that he could make that which he knew as clear to others as it was to himself: he never seems to labour with a thought which he finds it difficult to express: we detect nothing like perplexity or confusion in his ideas; and his exposition of them is so lucid that they are always rendered visible to the understanding.

By the description (page 267, &c.) of the internal state of America in 1784, we see with what rapidity the people of the United States began to recover from the havoc and spoliation which they had suffered during the war. Indeed, no country more forcibly testifies the energy that liberty gives to all those causes, of which the operation most contributes to the prosperity of nations. Speaking of the United States in the year 1784, the Doctor says;

'If we enter the cities, we find that, since the revolution, the owners of houses and lots of ground have had their interest greatly augmented in value; rents have risen to an astonishing height, and thence encouragement to increase building which gives employment to an abundance of workmen, as does also the increased luxury and splendour of living of the inhabitants, thus made richer. These workmen all demand and obtain much higher wages than any other part of the world would afford them, and are paid in ready money. This class of people therefore do not, or ought not to complain of hard times; and they make a very considerable part of the city-inhabitants.' — 'Whoever has travelled through the various parts of Europe, and observed how small is the proportion of people in affluence or easy circumstances there, compared with those in poverty and misery; the few rich and haughty landlords, the multitude of poor, abject, rack-rented ~~tythe-paying~~ tenants, and half-paid and half-starved ragged labourers;

bourers ; and views here the happy mediocrity, that so generally prevails throughout the states, where the cultivator works for himself, and supports his family in decent plenty, will, methinks, see an abundant reason to bless Divine Providence for the evident and great difference in our favour, and be convinced that no nation known to us enjoys a greater share of human felicity.' (Pp. 268, 269.)

Since this passage was written, the United States have made an astonishing progress in population, affluence, and power ; and, when as many years have elapsed from the present period as have intervened between the time of the above-mentioned description of America and the year 1819, who can venture to assert that the United States will not be able to contend with the mother-country for the empire of the seas ? America is beginning to run her course. She starts forwards in the grand career of human improvement, and in the race of national strength, not only without an accumulated weight of imposts, but without those impediments which antiquated prejudices, and the surviving institutions of ignorance and superstition, have left in the way of many European communities. No man saw more clearly than Dr. Franklin the great part which the United States were likely to act in the future destinies of the political world, and the ascendancy which they would probably attain both by land and on the waters. ' We are,' says he, p. 271., ' sons of the earth and seas, and like Antæus in the fable, if in wrestling with a Hercules we now and then receive a fall, the touch of our parents will communicate to us fresh strength and vigour to renew the contest.'

In the miscellaneous part of this volume, are several pieces of the lighter kind, which are written with a certain airy facility and *gaieté de cœur*, but are all distinguished by some moral tendency, or interwoven with some lesson of practical usefulness. Dr. Franklin possessed a great aptitude for combining the *utile* with the *dulce*. We find, for instance, a considerable portion of good instruction conveyed in the following extract from a letter to Madame Brillon, dated Passy, Nov. 10. 1779 :

' When I was a child of seven years old, my friends, on a holiday, filled my pocket with coppers. I went directly to a shop where they sold toys for children ; and being charmed with the sound of a *whistle*, that I met by the way in the hands of another boy, I voluntarily offered and gave all my money for one. I then came home, and went whistling, all over the house, much pleased with my *whistle*, but disturbing all the family. My brothers and sisters and cousins, understanding the bargain I had made, told me I had given four times as much for it as it was worth ; put me

in mind what good things I might have bought with the rest of the money ; and laughed at me so much for my folly, that I cried with vexation ; and the reflection gave me more chagrin than the *whistle* gave me pleasure. This however was afterwards of use to me, the impression continuing on my mind ; so that often when I was tempted to buy some unnecessary thing, I said to myself, *Don't give too much for the whistle* ; and I saved my money. As I grew up, came into the world, and observed the actions of men, I thought I met with many, very many, who *gave too much for the whistle*. When I saw one too ambitious of court favour, sacrificing his time in attendance on levées, his repose, his liberty, his virtue, and perhaps his friends, to attain it, I have said to myself, *This man gives too much for his whistle*. When I saw another fond of popularity, constantly employing himself in political bustles, neglecting his own affairs, and ruining them by that neglect, *He pays indeed*, said I, *too much for his whistle*. If I knew a miser who gave up every kind of comfortable living, all the pleasure of doing good to others, all the esteem of his fellow-citizens, and the joys of benevolent friendship, for the sake of accumulating wealth, *Poor man*, said I, *you pay too much for your whistle*. When I met with a man of pleasure, sacrificing every laudable improvement of the mind, or of his fortune, to mere corporeal sensations, and ruining his health in their pursuit, *Mistaken man*, said I, *you are providing pain for yourself, instead of pleasure ; you give too much for your whistle*. If I see one fond of appearance, or fine clothes, fine houses, fine furniture, fine equipages, all above his fortune, for which he contracts debts, and ends his career in a prison, *Alas!* said I, *he has paid dear, very dear for his whistle*. When I see a beautiful-sweet-tempered girl married to an ill-natured brute of a husband, *What a pity*, say I, *that she should pay so much for a whistle*. In short, I conceive that great part of the miseries of mankind are brought upon them by the false estimates they have made of the value of things, and by their *giving too much for their whistles*. (Pp. 318, 319.)

As a still gayer specimen of Dr. F.'s occasional devotion to hilarity of manner, we may quote his song in praise of friendship and wine, communicated in a letter to the Abbé de la Roche, as having been written forty years before :

' Fair Venus calls, her voice obey,
In beauty's arms spend night and day,
The joys of love all joys excel,
And loving's certainly doing well.

' CHORUS.

' Oh no !
Not so !
For honest souls know,
Friends and a bottle still bear the bell.

" Then let us get money, like bees lay up honey ;
We'll build us new hives and store each cell ;

The

The sight of our treasure shall yield us great pleasure ;
We'll count it, and chink it, and jingle it well.

‘ CHORUS.

‘ *Oh no ! &c.*

‘ If this does not fit ye, let's govern the city,
In power is pleasure no tongue can tell ;
By crowds tho' you're teaz'd your pride shall be pleas'd,
And this can make Lucifer happy in hell !

‘ CHORUS.

‘ *Oh no ! &c.*

‘ Then toss off your glasses, and scorn the dull asses
Who, missing the kernel, still gnaw the shell,
What's love, rule, or riches ! Wise Solomon teaches
They're vanity, vanity, vanity, still.

‘ CHORUS.

‘ *That's true ;
He knew ;
He had tried them all through ;
Friends and a bottle still bore the bell.*

The papers on Philosophical Subjects, which occupy rather more than one third of this volume, refer principally to electricity, smoky chimneys, the proper construction of stoves, and other topics which have more or less connection with the comfort and happiness of human beings. Though natural philosophy has made a great progress since the days of Franklin, his discoveries in electricity will long be remembered in the history of science: but the character, in which he will go down to posterity, is rather that of a wise statesman, who materially assisted in establishing the liberty and independence of his country, than that of a philosopher who has greatly enlarged our knowledge of the material world. He has indeed made accessions to science: but they will not transmit his name to future ages with so much splendor, as it will derive from those more important services which he rendered to the liberties of his fellow-creatures. One of the highest merits of man is to add to the happiness of his species; and who, in this respect, is so great a benefactor as that individual whose energy, whose virtues, and whose talents are instrumental in rescuing his country from the grasp of tyranny, and in diffusing the blessings of freedom over the world? This is the career which most highly intitles an individual to the esteem of his brethren; and this tribute is as much due to the zeal, the vigilance, and the disinterestedness of Franklin, as to the courage, the constancy, and the probity of Washington.

ART. XIII. *A Physiological System of Nosology; with a corrected and simplified Nomenclature.* By John Mason Good, F.R.S., &c. 8vo. pp. 660. 1l. 1s. Boards. Cox and Son.

IN this work, which bears the marks of much labour and considerable erudition, the author proposes to examine into the fundamental principles of the science; to correct, without respect of persons, the errors of those who have gone before him; and to establish a system which shall not be subject to the revolutions of fashion and caprice. A preliminary dissertation is prefixed, consisting of 100 pages; in which Mr. Good fully explains the views and object of his undertaking, and afterward gives an historical sketch of the labours of his predecessors. It consists of two parts or sections; the first presenting an account of the most noted nosologies that have successively appeared, and the second discussing the merits of their respective nomenclatures. Mr. G. commences by describing the different methods that have been adopted, as the ground-work for a systematic arrangement: he mentions the alphabetic as the most simple, though this surely can have no claim to the appellation; and then that which divides diseases according to their duration: but this, as consisting only of the two classes of chronic and acute, can scarcely be intitled to the denomination of a nosological system. We arrive at a more correct principle when we take the anatomical structure of the body as our guide; distributing the diseases into separate groupes, as they attack the head, the chest, the abdomen, &c.: yet even this is for obvious reasons a very imperfect plan, and very difficult to carry into effect. A fourth method has been tried, and is still more difficult to accomplish; viz. that in which the cause of disease has been taken as the basis of our arrangement; and hence an effort has been made to form what may be properly styled a natural method: but the attempts of this kind have proved altogether abortive. The last plan of nosological arrangement that has been adopted, or which has been carried to any extent in its practical application, is that which proceeds by symptoms; or those distinguishing marks by which one disease is known and characterized from all others, without any immediate reference to the nature of the malady, or the circumstances which are concerned in its production. On this subject, Mr. Good makes the following sensible remarks:

‘ This last is, in effect, the only method in any degree worthy of attention; for it is the only one that will generally hold true to itself, or on which we can place any dependance. Of the seat of

of diseases we often know but very little; of their causes far oftener still less; but there are certain marks or characters in the usual progress of most diseases which uniformly accompany and distinguish them, and to which, therefore, the epithet pathognomic has been correctly applied. It is not, indeed, to be contended that these distinctive signs are as constant and determinate as many of the distinctive signs that occur in zoology or botany. So complicated is the animal machinery, so perpetually alterable and altered by habit, climate, idiosyncrasy, and the many accidental circumstances by which life is diversified, that the general rule must admit of a variety of exceptions, and is here, perhaps, rather than any where else, best established by such exceptions. Yet, after all, every distinct disease, occur where it may, and under what peculiarity of constitution it may, proves so generally true to its own course, and is so generally attended by its own train of symptoms, or *co-incidents*, which is the literal rendering of *symptoms*, that he who steadily attends to these will not often be greatly deceived, and if he should be, he can find no other guide to set him right.'

Having settled the principle on which we are to proceed, we have next an historical sketch of the authors who have established their nosological systems on this basis; beginning with Plater, who is characterized, rather too metaphorically, 'as the morning-star that first glimmered in the hemisphere of symptomatology.' From the star of Plater we come to the sun of Sauvages, and at length to the perfect radiance of Cullen. Mr. Good reviews with considerable acuteness the merits and defects of the different systems that have been successively presented to the public, with respect both to their professed plan and to the mode of their execution. To Sauvages he gives great praise, and, we think, very justly: for his work was truly an Herculean labour; and, although it is now in a great degree superseded, it would be highly ungrateful not to acknowledge the eminent services which he rendered to the science of medicine. As a first attempt, it is certainly a wonderful performance; and we shall not be fully aware of the extent of the obligation, until we make ourselves acquainted with the state in which he found the art of nosology, and the comparative degree of improvement which it has experienced in passing through other hands since his time. Mr. Good's critique on it is very just: 'It is not very surprizing that a work thus constituted and conducted should be considerably too diffuse. This is its leading error; yet it is a venial one, and was by no means destitute of advantage at the time of its commission; for the very amplitude the work evinces rendered it, when first completed, a sort of nosological bazaar, to which every one might have

have recourse who was in pursuit of this new branch of study: and where he might accommodate himself with whatever articles he stood in need of.'

We shall not dwell on the observations respecting the modifications of Sauvages' system which were produced by Linné, Vogel, and Sagar: but the remarks on Cullen, in proportion to the greater importance of the work itself, may require a little more attention. In general, Mr. Good speaks of Cullen's nosology with great respect, but he observes 'that the system has faults, and insurmountable ones, it would be absurd to deny; for they meet us at the very outset, and run through the whole of its texture and constitution. It is sufficient to notice the three following: 1. Defective arrangement. 2. Want of discrimination between genera and species. 3. Looseness of distinctive character in the last general division.' Much as we venerate the talents of Cullen, we cannot deny the justice of these allegations; and it seems only surprising that a man of his comprehensive genius, who had so few prejudices, and was so little influenced by the dogmas of his predecessors, should have remained satisfied with so imperfect an attempt. For the most part, we think that the remarks of Mr. Good on Cullen are judicious and correct: if in any of them we differ from him, it is when he charges that writer with confounding his genera and his species: for, if this objection were maintained in all its parts, and were allowed to have its full force, it would lead to the conclusion that it is altogether an impossible attempt to make a subordination of genera and species in nosology, and that the whole gradation is entirely arbitrary.

After Cullen, the author proceeds in his examination of the later nosologists; of whom the principal are Pinel, Darwin, and Young. We consider the account of Pinel's and Darwin's systems as in general very good; and, severe as the character is which he gives of the latter, we fear that it must be allowed to be just:

'The author of *Zoonomia* was a man of great genius, daring imagination, and extensive reading. Unfortunately for him, he was perpetually stung with a desire of distinguishing himself by seeing things, weighing things, and combining them in a manner different from every one else. All his works, which the present writer has read attentively, and some of them more than once, give proof of this; and show evidently that he would at any time rather think wrong with himself, than think right with other people. And hence, while he offers much to gratify, he offers also much to offend; and proves that if he had aimed at less he would have accomplished more.'

Mr. G.

Mr. G. concludes his critique on the Zoonomia, to almost every part of which we fully subscribe, with the following remark: 'How deeply is it to be regretted that so much genius and learning, so much valuable time and labour, and above all, such lofty hopes and predictions, should have been productive of so small a result.' Having quoted the passage in which Dr. Darwin expresses a rather confident expectation that his work would sail down the stream of time with Newton's Principia, Mr. Good adds, 'no generous spirit can read this passage without a sigh:' but we should rather be disposed to say, *without a smile*; since vanity and self-estimation are not the qualities calculated to insure sympathy.

We were disappointed to find the present author passing over with so little notice the nosology of Dr. Young, which we regard as by far the most important work of the kind that has appeared since the publication of Cullen. We hope that the resemblance which exists between the system of Dr. Young and that of the writer himself has not been the cause of this deficiency, for Mr. Good has given too many proofs of his learning to excite any suspicion of his being a plagiarist. He concludes his first section by a few observations on the writers who have offered arrangements of certain descriptions of diseases only; as Dr. Willan's classification of cutaneous diseases, that of Mr. Abernethy on tumours, &c.

Want of space will compel us to pass slightly by the second section, on 'Medical Nomenclature;' and to bestow but a very little notice also on the third, intitled 'Scope of the present Design.' The author begins by observing 'that the healing art stands in considerable need of improvement in its two important branches of nosological arrangement and nomenclature: and it is, among other points, to an improvement in these two branches that the ensuing pages are especially directed.' On the latter of these topics, (medical nomenclature,) we have a very learned dissertation of thirty-five pages; in which the author takes into consideration all the circumstances that should be regarded in giving a name to a disease, as well as the correctness of the appellations, popular and scientific, which have been applied to them; states the grounds on which we ought to proceed in making compounded terms; and inquires into the exact meaning of the *affixes* and *suffixes* which are commonly employed. Mr. Good, however, does not rest satisfied with endeavoring to improve the language of medicine, but aims at the more important object of reforming the science itself. He explains at some length the principles by which he has been ruled in his present attempt, and

and states his reasons for dissenting from those who have preceded him. We should have been glad to accompany him through this detail: but it is absolutely necessary for us to advance to the more important task of examining the merits of that which constitutes the essential part of the system.

Mr. Good arranges diseases into seven classes, deduced from the various functions that are exercised by the living body: their names are, 1st, *Cœliaca*, diseases of the digestive function; 2dly, *Pneumatica*, diseases of the respiratory function; 3dly, *Hæmatica*, diseases of the sanguineous function; 4thly, *Neurotica*, diseases of the nervous function; 5thly, *Genetica*, diseases of the sexual function; 6thly, *Eccritica*, diseases of the excrement function; and lastly, *Tychica*, fortuitous lesions, or deformities. These classes, if we except the last, which may be regarded as a kind of appendix or supplement, are all natural divisions, and are each possessed of a clear discriminative character: so far, then, they must be regarded as correct and appropriate. We have, however, a considerable objection to offer respecting the method of classification adopted by Mr. Good; viz. that the groupes of diseases which compose his classes, although diseases of separate functions, have in fact, at least some of them, little real resemblance; and that they are united rather by the circumstance of their being seated in the same organ, or by a mere anatomical connection, than by any similarity or analogy in their pathological or physiological symptoms. A still greater error in his system is that the classes do not bear the same relation to each other, but are so disposed that some of them may supersede or include the rest: the *Hæmatica* and the *Neurotica*, for example, may apply to the *Cœliaca* or the *Pneumatica*, and may give to each of them a common character, but one that is unlike that of their associates. An inflammatory affection of the organs which carry on the digestive functions is in fact more analogous to an inflammatory affection of the respiratory organs, than an inflammatory and a nervous affection of the same organ; and even, waiving this objection, if we agree to proceed on anatomical grounds alone, it would be more proper to arrange diseases according to the similarity of the structure of the part, than merely according to the organ which is affected. Membranous diseases of different organs will probably be found to resemble each other more than affections of the same organ, in one of which the membrane and in the other the muscular fibre is the primary seat of the complaint. Perhaps, the most correct principle of nosological
classifi-

classification would be to take what may be styled the universal or general functions as the basis of the arrangement; the action of the sanguiferous and nervous systems, and perhaps also that of the absorbents or the function of nutrition, being to form the basis of the classes. The next division, viz. into orders, should depend on the organ affected, and would coincide very nearly with the first two classes of Mr. Good, his *Cæliaca*, and his *Pneumatica*, which would include all the different modes of the classes: to these, as additional orders, might perhaps be added his *Genetica* and *Ec critica*; and, we think, various secretory diseases, as those of the liver and kidneys. If we descend from Mr. G.'s classes to his orders, we shall probably find them not to be so consistent and methodical as we should be at first view led to imagine from his general plans of proceeding; while in other cases he has sacrificed real utility to apparent uniformity. The two orders of the first class differ principally in their seat, while the functions and structure of each are generally similar to each other: but the two orders of the second class, the diseases affecting the vocal avenues and those which affect the lungs, although like the former they are dissimilar in their seat, yet, in addition to this distinction, they are extremely varied in their nature and mode of action; and indeed some of them have no common property except that of local situation. What natural connection have the following diseases, which compose the genera of the first order, *Coryza*, *Polypus*, *Rhonus*, *Aphonia*, *Dysphonia*, *Psellismus*? Or what subsists between those which constitute the genera of the second, *Bez*, *Dyspnœa*, *Asthma*, *Ephialtes*, *Sternalgia*, *Pleuralgia*? The third class labours under a more radical and serious difficulty; viz. that its several orders do not bear the same relation to the parent-stock, or to each other, but properly belong to different gradations of the same state. The first order, *Pyretica*, in fact includes the second, *Phlogotica*, and the third, *Exanthematica*; while it may be fairly questioned whether the fourth, *Dysthetica*, be correctly placed in this part of the system. We think that it is a matter of considerable doubt whether the class *Neurotica* be formed of homogeneous materials; or whether the *Cinetica* be properly arranged as co-ordinate with the *Phrenica* and the *Æsthetica*; and, with respect to the *Systatica*, we feel disposed to regard it in the light of one of those convenient receptacles which exist in all classifications of every description, where those things are thrown together which do not very allowably come into any other part of the system.

It is not, however, so much on the perfection of its classes and orders, as on the correctness of its genera and species, that the value of a nosology depends; by grouping the genera into classes and orders, some light may occasionally be thrown on their nature and treatment: but the actual knowledge of the disease ultimately rests on ascertaining those points which properly constitute its identity, and which are usually styled its generic and specific characters. Two distinct points require attention in this part of nosology; the formation of the genera, and the characterizing of them. We have in medicine, as in botany, some specific or determinate fact, which merely requires to be ascertained in order that we should decide on the existence of a genus: but in medicine, it can only be discovered by long continued observation, and by the comparison of a variety of circumstances; and at length it is often rather to be assumed as *probable* than received as *certain*. The difficulty is to distinguish between what is properly a disease and what is only a symptom or a variety. Darwin erred most egregiously in disposing all morbid phænomena under separate heads, as distinct diseases; and Sauvages fell into the same error, although from rather a different cause. It will be impossible for us to attempt more than to select a few specimens of the present author's method of management in this respect: but from these, we hope, our readers may gain a correct conception of the character of the whole.

The second order of Class II., the *Pneumonica*, are stated to be diseases 'affecting the lungs, their membranes, or motive power,' and characterized by 'respiration irregular, impeded, or painful.' The first genus is *Bex*, a Greek term, signifying what we mean by the general expression, *cough*: it is defined to be a 'sonorous and violent expulsion of air from the lungs;' and its synonyms are $\beta\eta\chi\acute{\epsilon}$ of the antient Greek writers, — *Tussis* of Celsus, Sauvages, Linné, Vogel, and Sagar; — *Catarrhus* of Cullen, — and *Pneusis tussis* of Young. The genus is divided into three species, *humida*, *sicca*, and *convulsiva*. *Humida* is defined to be 'with expectoration of a mucous or serous fluid,' and under it are placed four varieties; *mucosa*, *anhelans*, *acrida*, and *periodica*. *Bex sicca* is 'unaccompanied with expectoration,' and has three varieties, *ingenerata*, *extranea*, and *verminosa*. The third species, *convulsiva*, is 'the cough convulsive and suffocative; accompanied with a shrill reiterated hoop; and frequently with vomiting: contagious.' This, which, it is unnecessary to remark, designates the whooping-cough, has no varieties or subdivisions. — On the genus *Bex* we may observe that, although cough is so common and so well marked an

affection, yet we are inclined to doubt whether it ought not always to be regarded as a symptom of some other affection which should constitute the genus. The cough of catarrh, the cough of croop, the cough of asthma, and the cough of phthisis, are all parts only of various sets of symptoms, which properly constitute different genera; while the whooping-cough, in which the cough forms so prominent a character, is altogether an affection of a different description, and, as we should say, belonging to a different family. We cannot, therefore, approve Mr. Good's genus of *Bex*.

Let us now proceed to the important class of the *Hæmatica*, or diseases of the sanguineous function. The first order is *Pyretica*, fevers, which are thus defined; 'heat and number of the pulse preternaturally augmented; usually preceded by rigor, and followed by perspiration; pains fixed or wandering; lassitude; debility of mind, and voluntary muscles.' The author farther remarks concerning the nature of fever;

'The two most striking characters of fever are heat and increased or violent action. In most languages the name for the disease is derived from the former, as pyretus in Greek, febris in Latin, calentura in Spanish, caldezza in Italian, though both the Spanish and Italian writers frequently concur with the French, English, and Germans, in employing a modification of the Latin term. In Anglo-saxon the name is derived from the second of the above characters, and is *drif*, or emphatically *ge-drif*; though the former is mostly used in Bede's Bible. The radical idea of this term is force, impulsion, violent action: it is the root of the English, *drive*, *drift*.'

The order *Pyretica* is divided into four genera; first, *ephemera*, which Mr. Good styles diary fever, divided into *mitis*, *acuta*, and *sudatoria*; and defined to be 'attack of fever sudden; paroxysm single, and terminating in about twenty-four hours.' The second genus is *anetus*, 'intermittent ague,' divided into *quotidianus*, *tertianus*, *quartanus*, *erraticus*, and *complicatus*. Under each of these are several varieties. *Quotidianus* has five; *partialis*, *comitatus*, *protractus*, *anticipans*, and *cunctans*: *tertianus* has two, *comitatus* and *protractus*: *quartanus* has four, *comitatus*, *protractus*, *anticipans*, and *cunctans*: *erraticus* has seven, *quintanus*, *sextanus*, *septanus*, *octanus*, *nonanus*, *decimanus*, and *vagus*; and under *complicatus* are eight, *tertianus duplex*, *tertianus triplex*, *tertianus impar*, *tertianus duplicatus quartanus duplex*, *quartanus triplex*, *quartanus duplicatus*, and *quartanus triplicatus*. The third genus of the *Pyretica* is *epanetus*, or remittent fever, thus defined; 'strikingly exacerbating, and remitting; but without intermission: one paroxysm every twenty-four hours.' It is

divided

divided into three species, *mitis*, *malignus*, and *hectica*: the first and third of which are no farther subdivided, but the second contains the four varieties, *autumnalis*, *flavus*, *ardens*, and *asthenicus*. The *epanetus flavus* is intended to designate the American yellow fever; and the *epanetus asthenicus*, 'the highly debilitating remittent of the south of Spain, Gombrown, Breslaw, &c.'

The fourth genus of *Pyretica* is *enecia*, continued fever, defined to be 'one series of increase and decrease; with a tendency to exacerbation and remission, for the most part appearing twice every twenty-four hours.' The genus is divided into three parts, *cauma*, *typhus*, and *synochus*. *Cauma* is thus defined: 'heat greatly increased; pulse quick, hard, and strong; urine red; disturbance of the mind slight.' This is the *synocha*, or inflammatory fever of Sauvages and Cullen, and contains the varieties *plethoricum*, *biliosum*, *pleuriticum*, and *cephalalgicum*. *Typhus* is defined, 'pulse small, weak, and unequal; usually frequent; heat and urine nearly natural; great prostration of strength, and disturbance of the mental powers;' and it is divided into the two varieties of *mitior* and *gravior*, intended to designate the nervous and the putrid fever respectively.

With respect to genera of fevers, in the first place we may remark concerning *ephemera*, that it is doubtful whether there be an actual disease of this kind, to which a distinct name ought to have been applied; or whether there be a diary fever, which is any more than a very short or very slight attack of a fever of some other description. Mere degree either of violence or duration is not a sufficient ground of generic character: but, if we were to admit *ephemera* as a proper genus, we can never allow of making *mitis* and *sudatoria* species of the same genus; since they are the two forms of fever which perhaps of all others are the most distinct in their nature, and agree only in the accidental circumstance of being of very short duration: — which circumstance, however, arises in the two cases from quite different causes, the one from the slowness of the affection, and the other from its excessive violence. On the whole, we think that *ephemera* is a very ill-defined genus.

Anetus is a genus little liable to be confounded with any other class of diseases: but it appears to us very doubtful how far there is adequate ground, as a matter of nosological arrangement, for forming a distinct genus of *epanetus*. In practice, it may often be very important to attend to such varying modes of disease: but, although a difference in degree be a sufficient ground for a difference in practice, it does not

cause any generic or even specific distinction in the nature of the two morbid affections. Here is the same objection which we remarked with respect to the genus *ephemera*; *hectica* being placed as a species of *epanctus*, with *epanctus mitis* and *epanctus malignus*, the bilious remittent and the yellow fever; two diseases to which hectic has neither resemblance nor analogy, with respect to its cause, symptoms, termination, or treatment.

Our limits will not allow us to pursue this examination any farther, and there is still one important part of Mr. Good's work to which we have scarcely made any reference; we mean the very learned and copious notes which accompany and illustrate the text. Of these we shall give our readers a few specimens, and we shall select those notes which are connected with the subjects that we have already criticized. We have the ensuing remarks on *ephemera*:

'GEN. I. EPHEMERA. ΕΦΉΜΕΡΑ, "diaria," from επί, or ἐπ', "apud," and ἡμέρα, "dies." We have no classical authority, however, for using it as a substantive, though we are justified by analogy. Galen writes usually ἐφΉμερος πυρετός, "diaria febris."

Ephemera sudatoria. Supposed by Willan to have been the result of some depravity in the wheat made use of in our own country at the period of the disease, which was the beginning of the sixteenth century. In proof of which he observes from other sources, that the contemporary inhabitants of Scotland and Wales, who fed on oaten or barley instead of wheaten bread, were not affected. A similar disease appears to have existed soon afterwards (1525) in Denmark, Norway, Holland, Flanders, and various parts of Germany. *Forest*, de Febr. p. 157. *Senner*, iv. and xvi.

'See Lord Bacon's description of the sweating sickness, Hist. Hen. VII. p. 5. *Wedel* De Sudore Anglico. Jen. 1697. *Haller* Bibl. Med. Pract. i. *Bayer*, Raths Schlag der jezt regierenden Pen-tilens, so mar den Englischen Schweissnennt. See also the note on PYRECTICA.'

The commentary on *Anetus* is as follows:

'GEN. II. ANETUS. ΆΝΕΤΟΣ, from ἀνίημι, "intermitto," "solvo," "intermissio vel solutio omnis imperii," as ανेतος ἐξουσία των στρατιω-των. *Herodian*. In like manner *Épanetus* (ἐπανητος), from ἐπανίημι, "remitto."

'Dr. Cullen, as already observed, unites intermittents and remittents into one section of fevers, merely distinguishing them as intermittents with an interposed apyrexia, and intermittents with remission alone; and he makes it a part of their pathognomic character that they are derived from marsh-miasm, *miasmate paludum ortæ*; whence Dr. Young gives to these two sorts of diseases the name of *paludal fevers*.

'The present system is intended, not to support hypotheses of any kind, however plausible, but to rest, as far as may be, on phy-siological

siological facts. Marsh-miasm is unquestionably the grand source of both intermitting and remitting fevers ; but it is at present too much to say that it is the only source. Even in tertians Dr. Cullen himself is obliged to admit of instances in which other agents are necessary ; but then, says he, they are only *co-agents*, and would not operate alone : “ has potestates excitantes *pro parte principii* hic admittimus, licet neutiquam morbum excitassent, si miasma paludum non antea applicatum fuisset.” But this is the very point of controversy.

‘ If intermittent ought to be separated from continued fevers, so ought remittent to be separated from intermittent. To say that intermittents often run into remittents is to say nothing, for remittents as often run into continued fevers : and it is now an established doctrine, that there is no continued fever whatever without occasional remissions. In effect, all fevers have a tendency to run into each other, and many causes are perhaps common to the whole. The difficulty is in drawing the line : yet a like difficulty is perpetually occurring to the physiologist in every part of nature ; and equally calls for discrimination in zoology, botany, and mineralogy : and Dr. Parr has correctly observed, that “ if a specific distinction can be established in any branch of natural history, it must be so in the separation of remittents from intermittents.” Vogel unites remittent with continued fevers, to which Cullen objects, and unites them with intermittents. Sauvages, Linnéus, Sagar, and most modern writers, more correctly distinguish each from the other.’

We conclude with the note on *Hectic*.

‘ *Epanetus Hectica*. Ἐπανηξ, from ἔξις, “ habitus.” Nothing can more fully prove the complexity and irregularity of this fever than the different characters given of it, and the different places allotted to it, by different authors. Sauvages and Sagar introduce it into the list of continued fevers. Linnéus, Crichton, and Parr, into that of remittent or exacerbating fevers ; Boerhaave regards it as of a mixt nature, a continued intermittent : “ Febris hectica,” says he, “ est referenda ad febres continuatas intermittentes.” *Prax. Med.* iii. 337. 8vo. Vogel and Cullen degrade it into a mere symptomatic affection. Under this last character it is perhaps most frequently to be found ; but it is now generally admitted to occur at times idiopathically, or as an original disease of the constitution. There are, perhaps, few physicians of long or extensive practice who have not met with it under this character : and those to whom it has never thus occurred, may consult Mr. J. Hunter’s treatise on the Blood, p. 496. 4to. : as also Dr. Heberden’s very accurate description and history ; who seems, indeed, to place it in the rank of *intermittents*, but only as he employs this term generally, so as, like Dr. Cullen, to include a remittent action. Cullen gives us, as a pathognomic symptom, “ Urinæ sedimentum furfuraceo — lateritium deponente :” while Hunter tells us that “ the urine is pale.” Dr. Heberden appears to have attended to this circumstance very closely ; and thinks that the same irregularity

larity which accompanies most other symptoms of the disease attends this also; that the urine is equally clear or turbid in the paroxysms and the intervals; sometimes clear in the first, and turbid in the second; and sometimes turbid in the first, and clear in the second. Dr. Duncan, from a long and assiduous attention, has determined the character given in the text.

'In Vol. VIII. of the *Amœnitates Academicæ*, art. 171., there is a good paper on the virtues of a species of St. John's wort, *hypericum perforatum*, as an active antihectic. The article is by C. B. Hellenius; and the plant is said to have been successfully employed by Linnæus, under the following form: *R Sumit Hyperici Manip. 1. — eoque in vini Hispan. lb̄ iv. ad tertię partis reman. cola.*

'The dose two ounces, or a half-quarter of a pint, morning and afternoon. The Swedish direction is *Nwaraf ett halfv quarter intages morgon och afton.*

'The *hypericum perforatum* is a native of our own country as well as of Sweden.'

It now only remains to say a few words respecting the general character of the work under consideration; and we can very safely praise it as learned, elaborate, and acute, the result of much research and much reflection, which have not been bestowed in vain. Yet these merits do not conceal from our view some considerable blemishes; and the one which seems to us to pervade the whole, and to be, as it were, the original sin that besets the author at all times and in all places, is affectation. Mr. Good is a man of extensive erudition, but he is every moment shewing us that he is so; he is a great linguist, but he forces his knowledge on us at every turn. Hence that which is novel is generally preferred to that which is natural; and, instead of chusing a name or an expression because it has been generally employed, Mr. G. appears as if he deemed this a sufficient reason for discarding it. Although, however, we have considered it as necessary to point out that which we regard as a serious defect, yet this defect is far counterbalanced by the various excellences of the work; and these are, indeed, so important, that we will venture to assert that no person must hereafter attempt to write on nosology who has not attentively studied Mr. Good's system.

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POETRY and the DRAMA.

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F f

Amptill

Amphill Park was the seat of the late Earl of Upper Ossory, who bequeathed it to Lord Holland. It has been rendered remarkable by various occurrences for many centuries, and its ancient castle has been the residence of persons of notoriety. The founder of it was Sir John Cornwall, surnamed the Green, from being born at sea in the bay of St. Michael's Mount, Cornwall; who was created Lord Fanhope, married Elizabeth of Lancaster, sister of Henry IV. and widow of the Duke of Exeter, and distinguished himself at the battle of Agincourt, A.D. 1415. Early in the 16th century, the estate became vested in the crown, and was the temporary habitation of Catherine of Arragon, wife of Henry VIII., during the proceedings for her divorce. The castle was afterward suffered to go to ruin; and a new mansion, as now existing, was built in 1694, by Lord Ashburnham. The oaks in the park have long been known for their number and beauty, but are now mostly in a state of picturesque decay.

About the year 1771, Lord Ossory, at the suggestion of Mr. Horace Walpole, erected on the site of the old castle a Gothic stone cross to the memory of Queen Catherine, and Mr. W. wrote the following inscription for it:

" In days of old here Amphill's towers were seen,
The mournful refuge of an injured Queen.
Here flow'd her pure, her unavailing tears;
Here blinded zeal sustained her sinking years.
Yet freedom hence her radiant banners wav'd,
And love-avenged a realm by priests enslaved.
From Catherine's wrongs a nation's bliss was spread,
And Luther's light, from Henry's lawless bed."

Though these verses have been occasionally ascribed to General Fitzpatrick, brother of Lord Ossory, the express declaration of Mr. Walpole that he wrote them, in a letter sent by him to a friend at the time, can surely leave no doubt as to the fact.*

All these, and some collateral circumstances, are introduced into the 'Lines' before us, written on taking leave of Amphill; in which the author displays a vivid relish for the beauties of nature then under his view, with a just feeling on the events of past times, which those scenes recalled to his mind. His versification is also very pleasing, flowing, and generally correct: but in a few instances he has taken *poetic licence* with grammar, by using the præterite instead of the participle after the auxiliary verb. For example: 'has wove,' 'have beat,' 'have strove,' 'be forgot,' 'has sat,' &c.

He thus muses o'er the scenery which he is about to quit.

' How fresh the air! what fragrance from the ground
Steams upwards as the cloudless orb of day
Sinks to the west, and all the landscape round
Basks in the splendor of his parting ray!

* See Letters from Horace Walpole to the Rev. Wm. Cole, lately published.

- ' This is thy magic pencil, Autumn, — thine
These deep'ning shadows, and that golden glow;
Rich as the gems which, in some eastern mine,
Athwart the gloom their mingled radiance throw.
- ' See yon huge OAKS, bathed in the amber flood;
See, through its brightness shines their mellow green,
Telling how long those reverend forms have stood,
And what their strength and beauty once have been.
- ' They wreath their roots, they fling their branches wide
O'er yon smooth meadow, as in ages past:
Assail'd in vain, and shattered, they deride,
Deep anchored still, the fury of the blast.
- ' Some are uninjured yet: — their leafy heads
Shelter the flocks, as they recline, or graze
O'er canopied, what time the Dog-star sheds
Full on the withered turf his fiercest blaze.
- ' Now to the dust, in ruins *down they go*,
Verdure above, but canker all beneath;
As o'er some couch hangs poised the uplifted blow,
Where ebbing life contends in vain with death.
- ' Since these were acorns, since their course was run
From youth to age, from vigour to decay,
What deeds have in the busy world been done!
What thrones have sunk, what empires passed away!

Houghton Park, near Amptill, and formerly belonging to the same family, naturally engages a part of the writer's contemplation, and gives occasion to some beautiful lines; tributary at the same time to Mary Countess of Pembroke, sister of Sir Philip Sydney, by whom the domain was purchased. Amptill and Houghton are considered as sister-parks:

- ' The terraced walk, the turf that gently swells,
Adorn them both: before th' enchanted eye
The spreading oaks along their shady dells
And their rough knolls, in rival beauty, lie.
- ' And, in this moment, as yon golden globe
Full in the horizon flaming, braves the west,
Both share th' impartial splendor, in a robe
From the same loom, of heaven's own colours, drest.
- ' Here, in the fabric which her hands had raised,
Dwelt "Sydney's sister, Pembroke's mother," — here
On all so bright and beautiful she gazed*,
Blessing and bless'd, through many a changeful year.'

In conclusion, the author adverts to the present possessor of Amptill, Lord Holland, to whom the poem is dedicated, and who is here, we believe, deservedly eulogized. The park, it seems,

* This is perhaps the poorest line in the whole poem.

was the home of his early days, while it was the residence of his uncle, the late noble owner.

- ‘ Oh ! what a gift affection has bequeathed !
How dear to him, in manhood’s prime, must be
The soil he trod, the very air he breathed,
In the blithe hours of careless infancy !
- ‘ As his eye glances, as his footsteps roam,
Still busy memory joys some spot to trace,
Where once the happy school-boy, welcomed home,
In his fond kinsman’s viewed a father’s face.’

Some historical notes are added to this elegant little poem, of which we have made use in our introductory paragraph.

Art. 15. *Tom Cribb’s Memorial to Congress.* With a Preface, Notes, and Appendix. By one of the Fancy. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1819.

The author of this merry *state-paper* seems determined to turn the whole poetical world topsy-turvy. He has transformed Parnassus into a bear-garden, has converted the Muses into Billingsgate wenches, and Apollo himself, not contented with masquerading once as a shepherd, has now assumed the character of Tom Crib the boxing Champion. The poet, also, is *disguised*, and seems, if we may use his own mixed phraseology, to have “drunk deep” of *blue ruin*, instead of the “Pierian spring.” Taste is entirely banished, fancy is in no consideration unless with the *definite article* prefixed, and the slang-vocabulary has usurped the place of the Rhyming Dictionary. Wit and humour, however, still hold their place, but so concealed that a *masculine* eye alone can recognize them. We have had some hearty laughs, but our fair friends can neither understand nor enjoy our merriment ; of which, to say the truth, we have felt some difficulty in explaining the cause. Dissatisfied with the universal suffrage of the fair, which he has been accustomed to command, the poet * has now resolved to risk his popularity with them, and to shew that he can write something above their comprehension. We must leave him to the consequences of his temerity, and proceed with our account of his work ; which, notwithstanding the awful drawbacks above noticed, is a most entertaining production, in its prose as well as its poetic divisions.

The preface states the visit of ‘ Mr. Bob Gregson, Mr. George Cooper, and a few more illustrious brethren of THE FANCY,’ to the Congress, and adds that ‘ it had been resolved at a Grand Meeting of the Pugilistic Fraternity, that, as all the *milling* Powers of Europe were about to assemble, personally or by deputy, at Aix-la-Chapelle, it was but right that THE FANCY should have its representatives there as well as the rest, and these gentlemen were accordingly selected for that high and honourable office.’ The author then intimates that he has been employed in a voluminous

* Anacreon Moore has the credit of being the author of this *Memorial*.

and elaborate work, intitled "A Parallel between ancient and modern Pugilism," the difficulties of which may be seen in the following extract :

' The variety of studies necessary for such a task, and the multiplicity of references which it requires, as well to the living as the dead, can only be fully appreciated by him who has had the patience to perform it. Alternately studying in the Museum and the Fives Court — passing from the Academy of Plato to that of Mr. Jackson — now indulging in *Attic flashes* with Aristophanes, and now studying *Flash* in the *Attics* of *Cock Court*^a — between so many and such various associations has my mind been divided during the task, that sometimes, in my bewilderment, I have confounded Ancients and Moderns together, — mistaken the *Greek* of St. Giles's for that of Athens, and have even found myself tracing Bill Gibbons and his Bull in the "*taurum tibi, pulcher Apello*" of Virgil. My printer, too, has been affected with similar hallucinations. The *Mil. Glorios.* of Plautus he converted, the other day, into a *Glorious Mill* ; and more than once, when I have referred to *Tom. prim.* or *Tom. quart.* he has substituted Tom Crib and Tom Oliver in their places. Notwithstanding all this, the work will be found, I trust, tolerably correct ; and as an Analysis of its opening chapters may not only gratify the impatience of the *Fanciful World*, but save my future reviewers some trouble, it is here given as succinctly as possible.'

We subjoin one of these analyses for the amusement of our readers, who will rejoice to see their learning turned to so good an account.

' *Chap. 3.* examines the ancient terms of THE FANCY, as given by Pollux (*Onomast. ad fin. Lib. 3.*) and others ; and compares them with the modern. — For example, *αγκυρα*, to *throttle* — *αγκυριζων*, evidently the origin of our word to *lug* — *αγκυριζων*, to *anchor* a fellow, (see Grose's *Greek Dictionary* for the word *anchor*) — *δρασσειν* (perf. pass. *δεδραγμαται*), from which is derived to *drag* ; and whence, also, a *flash* etymologist might contrive to derive *δραμα*, *drama*, Thespis having first performed in a *drag*.^b This chapter will be found highly curious ; and distinguished, I flatter myself, by much of that acuteness, which enabled a late illustrious Professor to discover that our English "Son of a Gun" was nothing more than the *Παις Γυνης* (Dor.) of the Greeks.'

The 'Memorial' opens in the following strain, in which the *slang* of "The Fancy" is admirably adapted to the subject :

' Most Holy, and High, and Legitimate *squad*,
First *Swells*^c of the world, since *Boney's* in *quod*^d,

^a The residence of The Nonpareil, Jack Randall, — where, the day after his last great victory, he held a levee, which was attended, of course, by all the leading characters of St. Giles's.'

^b The flash term for a cart.'

^c *Swell*, a great man.'

^d In prison. The *dab's* in *quod* ; the rogue is in prison.'

Who have ev'ry thing now as *Bill Gibbons* would say,
 " Like the bull in the china shop, all your own way" —
 Whatsoever employs your magnificent *nobs*^e,
 Whether *diddling* your subjects, and *gutting* their *fobs*^f, —
 (While you *lum* the poor *spoonies*^g with speeches so pretty,
 'Bout Freedom, and Order, and — *all my eye Betty*)
 Whether praying, or dressing, or *dancing the hays*,
 Or *lapping* your *congo*^h at Lord C—STL—R—GH's, —ⁱ
 (While his Lordship, as usual, that very great *dab*^k
 At the flowers of rhet'ric, *flashing* his *gab*^l)
 Or holding State Dinners, to talk of the weather,
 And cut up your mutton and Europe together !
 Whatever your *gammon*, whatever your talk,
 Oh deign, ye illustrious *Cocks of the Walk*,
 To attend for a moment, — and if the Fine Arts
 Of *fibbing*^m and *boring*ⁿ be dear to your hearts ;
 If to *level*^m, to *punish*^m, to *ruffian*^m, mankind
 And to *darken* their *daylights*ⁿ, be pleasures refin'd }
 (As they *must* be) for every Legitimate mind, —
 Oh listen to one, who, both able and willing
 To spread through creation the myst'ries of *milling*,
 (And, as to whose politics, search the world round,
 Not a sturdier *Pit-tite*^o e'er liv'd — under ground)
 Has thought of a plan, which — excuse his presumption —
 He hereby submits to your Royal *rumgumption*.^p

After the expression of a hope that ' wars and *rumbustions* will cease,' and that

— ' *lobsters* will lie such a drug upon hand,

That our *do-nothing* Captains must all get japann'd,'

he proceeds with ' An Account of the grand Set-to between Long Sandy and Georgy the Porpus ;' * which is supposed to take place at Moulsey. Our *fanciful* friends, we presume, would be pleased with a round or two : but we cannot thus indulge them.

' ^e Heads.'

' ^f Taking out the contents. Thus *gutting* a quart pot, (or *taking out the lining* of it) *i. e.* drinking it off.'

' ^g Simpletons, alias *Innocents*.'

' ^h Drinking your tea.'

' ⁱ See the Appendix, No. 3.'

' ^k An adept.'

' ^l Showing off his talk. — Better expressed, perhaps, by a late wit, who, upon being asked what was going on in the House of Commons, answered, " only Lord C. *airing* his *vocabulary*."

' ^m All terms of the Fancy, and familiar to those who read the Transactions of the Pugilistic Society.'

' ⁿ To close up their eyes — alias, to *sow up* their *sees*.'

' ^o Tom received his first education in a Coal Pit ; from whence he has been honoured with the name of " the Black Diamond."

' ^p *Gumption* or *Rumgumption*, comprehension, capacity.'

* We think that the apology made in the preface for this selection of one of the combatants is quite necessary. The subject has been too long handled, and will be worn out, to say nothing more.

Several minor pieces are contained in the Appendix: among which is the 'Account * of the Grand Pugilistic Meeting, held at Belcher's, (Castle Tavern, Holborn,) TOM CRIS in the Chair, to take into consideration the propriety of sending Representatives of the Fancy to Congress. — Extracted from a letter written on the occasion by Harry Harmer the Hammerer, to Ned Painter.' With specimens of the oratorical powers of the principal 'Heroes of the Ring.'

The translation of the part of the fifth Æneid relating the contest, or 'milling match,' between Dares and Entellus is remarkable chiefly for the ludicrous adaptation of *St. Giles's Greek* to *Roman Latin*. We must refer to the work itself for a specimen of this new version; and for two other pieces, 'On the Departure of Lords C—ST—R—GH, and ST—W—RT for the Continent,' and 'To the Ship in which Lord C—ST—R—GH sailed for the Continent.' Besides these we have three lucubrations by BOB GREGSON, POET LAUREATE OF THE FANCY, with the best of which we shall close our extracts:

'Lines to Miss Grace Maddox, the Fair Pugilist, written in Imitation of the Style of Moore, by Bob Gregson, P. P.

'Sweet Maid of the Fancy! — whose ogle^a, adorning
That beautiful cheek, ever budding like bowers,
Are bright as the gems that the first Jew^b of morning
Hawks round Covent-Garden, 'mid cart-loads of flowers!

'Oh Grace of the Graces! whose kiss to my lip
Is as sweet as the brandy and tea, rather thinnish,
That Knights of the Rumpad^c so rurally sip,
At the first blush of dawn, in the Tap of the Finish!'

'Ah, never be false to me, fair as thou art,
Nor belie all the many kind things thou hast said;

* To this account are prefixed the following motto and humorous note:

'ΑΛΛ' ὀδὸς το ΚΑΝ
Λυψή, ἰσὺς αὖ
Τὸν ἄγχιον αὐτὸν ΤΙΜ.†'

'^a Eyes.'

'^b By the trifling alteration of "dew" into "Jew," Mr. Gregson has contrived to collect the three chief ingredients of Moore's poetry, viz. dews, gems, and flowers, into the short compass of these two lines.'

'^c Highwaymen.'

'^d Brandy and tea is the favourite beverage at the Finish,' a notorious public house in Covent Garden.

'† The passage in Pindar, from which the following lines of "Hark, the merry Christ Church Bells" are evidently borrowed.

'The devil a man
Will leave his can,
Till he hears the Mighty Tom:

The falsehood of *other* nymphs touches the *Heart*,
But *thy fibbing*, my dear, plays the dev'l with the *Head*!

' Yet, who would not prize, beyond honours and pelf,
A maid to whom Beauty such treasures has granted;
That, ah, she not only has black eyes herself,
But can furnish a friend with a pair, too, if wanted !

' Lord *Str—w—rr*'s a hero (as many suppose)
And the Lady he woos is a rich and a rare one:
His *heart* is in *Chancery*, every one knows,
And so would his *head* be, if thou wert his fair one.

' Sweet Maid of the Fancy ! when love first came o'er me,
I felt rather *queerish*, I freely confess ;
But now I've thy beauties each moment before me,
The pleasure grows more, and the queerishness less.

' Thus a new set of *darbies*^u, when first they are worn,
Makes the *Jail-bird*^x uneasy, though splendid their ray ;
But the links will lie lighter the longer they're borne,
And the comfort increase, as the *shine* fades away !'

We are always happy to welcome this author, whatever be the *fighting name* (*nom de guerre*) which he adopts : but we acknowledge that our gratification, however great, would be increased if he would not wander out of his own regions of elegance and wit.

Art. 16. *Evadne* ; or the Statue : a Tragedy, in Five Acts ; as performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Richard Sheil, Esq. 8vo. 3s. Murray. 1819.

In recording this new play by Mr. Sheil, we have little to add to our former character of him as a dramatist. He is feeble, and yet turgid ; ostentatiously chaste, and yet grossly indelicate. His language, under an appearance of antient muscularity, is full of modern dross ; and his sentiments, wearing the guise of Arcadian purity, introduce us to the moral tone of the stew. We are far from insinuating that Mr. Sheil is himself conscious of all or half of this. On the contrary, he writes thus in his prologue :

' And you, ye Fair, see young *Evadne* prove
Her vestal honour, and her plighted love ;
See her, the light and joy of every eye,
Veil all her charms in spotless chastity ;
And, 'mid the fires and phantasies of youth,
Turn strong temptations to the cause of truth !
O ! may each maid *Evadne's* virtue share,
With heart as faithful, though with form less fair.'

This exordium, the concluding sentence of which we do not think would be very acceptable to the fairest part of the audience,

^u Fetters.'

^x Prisoner. — This being the only bird in the whole range of Ornithology, which the author of *Lalla Rookh* has not pressed into his service, Mr. Gregson may consider himself very lucky in *being* able to lay hold of it.'

would induce an unsuspecting reader to believe that the play of Evadne was a model of virgin-purity; and that none of the disgusting grossness of Bertram, or other similar dramatic specimens, was to be found in the present pages. What will that reader say when he discovers that the whole contexture of the drama, the design, the conduct, and the catastrophe, *all* turn on the expectation of the King to be admitted to the bed of the immaculate heroine, and on the revolting additional circumstance of her brother being intended to act as Master of the Ceremonies, on the occasion! This is enough.

With regard to the faults of language, we could cite every speech of the play: — but we would rather suffer them to be discovered by the judicious reader, in the passage which we shall subjoin. It is certainly the best in the tragedy; and yet, even here, a just criticism must arrest the voice of panegyric on too many occasions. How little do *they* appreciate the pleasure of praise, who undervalue the severe resolution of enduring to detect a fault, even in the moment of warmest admiration!

Under *pretence* of accepting the proposals of the King, the chaste Evadne receives him in the *Hall of Statues* in her brother's house; while that virtuous brother, having *pretended* to act the pandar to his sister's dishonour, lurks behind the statues to watch the issue, and accomplish his revenge.

‘ *Evad.*

[*Going to a Statue.*

Behold!

The glorious founder of my family!
It is the great Rodolpho! — he was famed
When heroes filled the world, and deeds that now
Are miracles, were the unmarvelled growth
Of every day's succession! — Charlemagne
Did fix that sun upon his shield, to be
His glory's blazoned emblem; for at noon,
When the astronomer cannot discern
A spot upon the full-orbed disk of light,
'Tis not more bright than his immaculate name!
With what austere, and dignified regard
He lifts the type of purity, and seems
Indignantly to ask, if aught that springs
From blood of his, shall dare to sully it
With a vapour of the morning!

‘ *King.* It is well;

His frown has been attempered in the lapse
Of generations, to thy lovely smile, —
I swear, he seems not of thy family. —
My fair Evadne, I confess, I hoped
Another sort of entertainment here.

‘ *Evad.* Another of mine ancestors, my liege —
Guelfo the Murderer!

‘ *King.* The Murderer!

I knew not that your family was stained
With the reproach of blood.

‘ *Evad.*

‘ *Evad.* We are not wont
To blush, tho’ we may sorrow for his sin,
If sin indeed it be. — His castle walls
Were circled by the siege of Saracens, —
He had an only daughter whom he prized
More than you hold your diadem; but when
He saw the fury of the infidels
Burst through his shattered gates, and on his child
Dishonour’s hand was lifted, with one blow
He struck her to the heart, and with the other,
He stretched himself beside her.

‘ *King.* Fair Evadne,
I’ll bid your brother chide you for delay, —
Perverse, capricious woman!

‘ *Evad.* I’ll not raise
A tax upon your patience by regard
Of this large host of heroes. — They are those
Who fought in Palestine, and shed their blood
For the holy sepulchre. — Two oaths they swore —
One to defend their God — the other was,
With their right arms to guard the chastity
Of an insulted woman.

‘ *King.* Fair Evadne,
I must no more indulge you, else I fear
You would scorn me for my patience; prithee, love,
No more of this wild phantasy!

‘ *Evad.* My liege,
But one remains, and when you have looked upon it,
And thus complied with my desire, you will find me
Submissive to your own. — Look here, my lord, —
Know you this statue?

‘ *King.* No, in sooth, I do not.

‘ *Evad.* Nay — look again — for I shall think but ill
Of princely memories, if you can find
Within the inmost chambers of your heart
No image like to this — look at that smile —
That smile, my liege — look at it!

‘ *King.* It is your father!

‘ *Evad.* (*Breaking into exultation.*)
Aye! — ’tis indeed my father! — ’tis my good,
Exalted, generous, and god-like father!
Whose memory, though he had left his child
A naked, houseless, roamer through the world,
Were an inheritance a princess might
Be proud of for her dower! — It is my father!
Whose like in honour, virtue, and the fine
Integrity that constitutes a man,
He hath not left behind! — there is that smile,
That, like perpetual day-light, shone about him
In clear and bright magnificence of soul!
Who was my father? (*With a proud and conscious interrogatory.*)

‘ *King.*

' *King*. One, whom I confess
Of high and many virtues.

' *Evad*. Is that all?

I will help your memory, and tell you first,
That the late King of Naples looked among
The noblest in his realm for that good man,
To whom he might entrust your opening youth,
And found him worthiest. In the eagle's nest
Early he placed you, and beside his wing
You learned to mount to glory! Underneath
His precious care you grew, and you were once
Thought grateful for his service. His whole life
Was given to your uses, and his death —
Ha! do you start, my lord? On Milan's plain
He fought beside you, and when he beheld
A sword thrust at your bosom, rushed — it pierced him!
He fell down at your feet, — he did, my lord!
He perished to preserve you! [*Rushes to the Statue.*] Breathless
image,

Altho' no heart doth beat within that breast,
No blood is in those veins, let me enclasp thee,
And feel thee at my bosom. — Now, Sir, I am ready —
Come and unloose these feeble arms, and take me! —
Aye, take me from this neck of senseless stone, —
And to reward the father with the meet
And wonted recompence that princes give —
Make me as foul as blotted pestilence,
As black as darkest midnight, and as vile
As guilt and shame can make me.

' *King*. She has smitten
Compunction thro' my soul!

' *Evad*. Approach, my lord!
Come in the midst of all mine ancestry,
Come and unloose me from my father's arms —
Come, if you dare, and in his daughter's shame
Reward him for the last drops of the blood
Shed for his prince's life! — Come! —

' *King*. Thou hast wrought
A miracle upon thy prince's heart,
And lifted up a vestal lamp, to shew
My soul its own deformity — my guilt!

' *Evad*. [*Disengaging herself from the Statue.*] Ha! have you
got a soul?

We are desirous of giving every praise to the moral effect of
this scene, of which it *can* be supposed susceptible: but, *after*
all, is it not an antidote to a bane which should never have *been*
forced down the throats of the public? Is it not a weak *moral*,
after pages of prepared corruption? *Lust* should not, in the
nineteenth century, be made the basis of a play.

We have only to ask, in conclusion, why the author calls
Luda-

Ludovico Ludovico throughout the drama? and why Ludovico was permitted to say,

— ‘ Oh ! that I could

Like an expiring dragon, spit upon you !’

Art. 17. *The Dwarf of Naples.* A Tragi-Comedy in Five Acts. First performed at the Theatre-Royal, Drury Lane, on Saturday, March 13. 1819. By George Soane, A. B. Author of *The Inn-keeper's Daughter*, &c. &c. 8vo. 3s. Rodwell.

Mr. Kean is certainly a man of great genius and talents : but we doubt whether he has done, or is likely to do, any good to the stage ; because the style of his acting has encouraged authors to give birth to the most monstrous and extravagant productions, the existence of which depends on the deeply contrasted lights and shades which he has such peculiar powers in displaying. These “ images of the brain ” have little in unison with nature, and less to excite the best sympathies of mankind. “ *Bertram* ” was of this class ; and ‘ *the Dwarf of Naples* ’ follows, though with far less pretensions, in the same track. It is a weak and miserable performance, well deserving the death-blow which it received. We only wonder that it lingered beyond the first night.

Art. 18. *The Italians ; or, The Fatal Accusation.* A Tragedy. With a Preface ; containing the Correspondence of the Author with the Committee of Drury-Lane Theatre ; P. Moore, Esq., M. P.; and Mr. Kean. By the Author of “ *The Philosophy of Nature.* ” (Mr. Bucke.) Second Edition. 8vo. 3s. Whittaker. 1819.

It is perhaps venturous to enter the lists of criticism with the redoubted Knight of Drury-Lane : but, as he has encroached on our province, we are bound in honour to defend our rights ; and, as he seems to have varied in his opinions on a single subject, at one time speaking highly of the tragedy before us, and at another altogether condemning it, we see no reason to fear his prowess. The preface contains what we cannot but view as a disgusting disclosure of theatrical despotism, alike discreditable to the Committee of management and to *its manager*, Mr. Kean. One good effect, however, will perhaps result from the publication, viz. that authors, for some time to come, will be treated more like gentlemen, and will not have to look to these tinsel-kings for favour and support. The tragedy itself is by no means, as Mr. Kean would have us believe, the worst of all bad tragedies ; neither is it so fine a composition as the author's friends assert. Some passages in it display good taste, and a poetic mind : but, as a whole, it is deficient in effect ; and the revengeful feelings of Albanio, the hero, have not a foundation sufficient to justify the length of time during which they have existed, or the violent extremes to which they are carried. This character is another instance of what we remarked in the preceding article. It was intended expressly for Mr. Kean.

EDUCATION.

Art. 19. *Advice to the Teens ; or Practical Helps towards the Formation of One's own Character.* By Isaac Taylor, Minister

of the Gospel at Ongar. Second Edition. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Fenner. 1818.

This valuable little book offers, in a tone of cheerful and parental kindness, the most sensible and useful counsel to young men, during the period between their leaving school and their establishment of themselves for life. We think that it cannot be too widely circulated, or too attentively perused.

Art. 20. *Harry's Holiday*; or the Doings of One who had nothing to do. By Jefferys Taylor. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Fenner. 1818.

The family of Mr. Taylor of Ongar may, by a slight transposition of a homely proverb, be said to come into the world with a silver pen in their hands; and perhaps next to the productions of Miss Edgeworth, we may rank the books intended to amuse and improve the rising generation which their ingenuity has produced. The present tale is announced as the first literary effort of Master Jefferys Taylor, and it is a natural and entertaining little story, evincing talents which may hereafter intitle the young writer to distinction.

Art. 21. *Edward and George*; or Lessons from Real Life. For Children of early Years. 12mo. 2s. Half-bound. Darton and Co. 1818.

An attractive little work, calculated to teach simple practical lessons in a lively and agreeable manner.

Art. 22. *The Promised Visit*: including an Account of the various Methods of manufacturing Paper in different Countries, &c. By the Author of "The Dew Drop." 12mo. 1s. 6d. Half-bound. Darton and Co. 1818.

Notwithstanding the information which this book contains, we hesitate in recommending it, on account of the horrible story at page 76., of a boy who in a fit of anger roasted a fighting cock alive. Perhaps such extremes of cruelty cannot be usefully or even safely suggested to the minds of children.

Art. 23. *The Winter Scene*; to amuse and instruct the Rising Generation. By M. H. Small 12mo. Darton, jun. 1818.

This pleasing little book will be found to offer some useful tales and examples to young readers.

Art. 24. *The Alchemist*. By the Author of "Ornaments discovered," "The Metamorphoses," &c. Small 12mo. 2s. 6d. Half-bound. Darton, jun. 1818.

In this little work the character of Louisa is charming, and the effect of a good education in correcting her foibles is well exemplified, and contrasted with the result of an education conducted on selfish principles in the case of her cousin. Perhaps, however, this tale embraces too large a portion of time, and resembles a novel too much for a child's book; while the history of the father's and mother's marriages, and the faults of Mrs. Cleveland, can neither be profitable nor amusing to young readers.

Art. 25. *Little Lessons for Little Folks*; containing Four Tales. By Mary Belson. Small 12mo. Darton, jun. 1818.

The

The tale intitled 'The Little Sweepers' is rather interesting; and the whole volume offers some variety, though the fair writer's information and style are not always correct. In p. 143., the late Admiral Bligh is thus metamorphosed: 'The bread-fruit grows, since the year 1793, in the West Indies, where (whither) it was taken by a person named *Blith*.' In p. 39., a young lady is made to say, 'We shall finish what I *name*;' and p. 50., '*naming* the nature of the mistake.' Again, p. 146., 'Until 320 years after I named.' P. 154., 'Carp is *held* the queen of fresh-water fish,' &c.

NOVELS.

Art. 26. *Civilization; or, The Indian Chief.* 12mo. 3 Vols. Boards. Egerton. 1818.

The commencement of this story is rather heavy; and this is a serious charge against a professed work of amusement. It contains, however, some sensible observations and pleasing characters: the quiet and sensible Miss Rainsworth is a valuable and not a common delineation; and the behaviour of Justinian, when he enters on his clerical duties, affords in many respects an exemplary model.

Art. 27. *The Question, Who is Anna? A Tale.* By Miss M. S. Croker. 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Souter. 1818.

This is rather a *questionable* story, when considered as the production of a young lady's pen; and little can be gained by reading it, except a key to the proposed enigma of 'Who is Anna?' with the additional information that, when Anna travelled to Matlock, (vol. ii. p. 7.) 'the frequent locking of the wheels, as they descended the hills, gave her the sweetest sensations she had ever experienced.'

Art. 28. *Altham and his Wife.* A Domestic Tale. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Ollier. 1818.

Strong censure is here aimed at extravagant religious opinions: but it would have been more conducive to the interests of morality, if the odious characters of Simpson and Driver had been counterbalanced by an exhibition of the good effects of rational piety in Altham: whereas he seems to place his dependence on an enthusiastic admiration for green fields, sweet flowers, and the beauties of nature; which feelings, though amiable in themselves, are not, we presume, sufficient to constitute a religious character.

Art. 29. *A Year and a Day.* By Madame Panache, Author of "Manners." 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Baldwin and Co. 1818.

Although the story contained in these volumes is not new, and the moral not very intelligible, yet the work is interesting and well written. Too close a resemblance, however, may be traced in some passages to other novels: for instance, when in vol. i. p. 63. Lady Margaret is made to say, 'I hardly believe that Lady Egglestone had ever a grandfather,' this speech appears to have been borrowed from Madame d'Arblay's "*Cecilia*;" and it is too characteristic an exemplification of the pride of birth in a narrow mind, to be fairly borrowed without acknowledgement.

Art. 30. *Correction.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1818.

In the paths of modern literature,

“Grove nods at grove, each *novel* has its brother;”

and the present tale has evidently been modelled from the works of the late Mrs. Brunton, although this ‘*Correction*’ is by no means so ably administered as was the “*Discipline*” of that lady. Titles are here bestowed in wasteful profusion on personages who know not what to do with them: ‘Lord Inglis,’ who is also a major in the Hussars, is constantly styled ‘Colonel Inglis;’ and in vol. i. p. 76. the reader is informed that ‘Charles became Lord Charles by the death of his father, Lord William Ross.’ Many French sentences are introduced, and are generally incorrect; and the English is not always accurate. *Ex. gr.* vol. i. p. 88., ‘*A gay ephemera.*’ Page 65., ‘the loss, of *whom* he never spoke, had fixed a deeply rooted sorrow in his heart.’ Page 173., ‘*A farrango of nonsense.*’ Vol. ii. p. 251., ‘Of Mary alone can you speak *positive*;’—‘as he *rose his eyes*, they met the enquiring ones of his mother.’ Page 294., ‘*A smile lit up her dark eye.*’ Vol. iii. p. 383., ‘Six years has now rolled by, &c. &c.’

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 31. *Reflections on the present Condition of the Female Sex; with Suggestions for its Improvement.* By Priscilla Wakefield. Second Edition. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Darton and Co.

Mrs. Wakefield here offers hints, observations, and advice, which will be useful in proportion as they are put in practice. We particularly approve her suggestion that her fair readers should divide their time methodically; believing that in no other way can the wise man’s assertion be realized, and “a time found for every thing.” Her proposals for the rational and benevolent employment of their leisure, in superintending work-houses, poor-houses, and cottages, are also excellent; as well as the plan laid down at p. 49. of institutions for the purpose of educating young women as governesses. We cannot see in the same heinous light, however, in which Mrs. Wakefield appears to view it, the ‘indelicacy’ of allowing men to teach dancing and music ‘to girls advancing towards maturity;’ yet we agree with her that, if females could be qualified for superintending every branch of instruction in ladies’ boarding schools, many inconveniences would be avoided. When, moreover, in her zeal for the occupation of females, this lady proposes that they shall be employed in the shops of apothecaries, because ‘the compounding of medicines, requires no other talents than care and exactness,’ she forgets that some knowledge of Latin is also necessary; and her assertion in pp. 113. and 135., that ‘celibacy, among the inferior ranks especially, is a political evil of such magnitude as to require every check that wisdom can suggest,’ will be questioned by Mr. Malthus and many politicians who adopt his principles, and who think that “the fewer the better cheer,” among the lower classes.

Art.

Art 32. *A Brief Memoir of the Life of William Penn*; compiled for the Use of Young Persons. By Priscilla Wakefield. 12mo. 1s. Darton and Harvey.

An abstract of the principal circumstances in the life of so excellent and distinguished a person as William Penn cannot be entirely useless, or uninteresting: but we must venture to observe that Mrs. Wakefield has executed her design in a manner which is somewhat dry; and that her publication might have been improved, and not unduly lengthened, if the subject of it had been placed before us in *propria persona* by the insertion of some of his speeches. We might specify, for instance, his witty and celebrated answers on his trial; an event that is passed over in a cursory manner, with a bare mention of 'the tyranny of the judge, the conscientious firmness of the jury, and the independent defence of the prisoner.'

CORRESPONDENCE.

We have received a letter from the author of "The Friends, a Poem," reviewed in our last Number; in which he denies, with much warmth, the imputation of having made the attack there supposed on Lord Byron; (see p. 248.) to whom, he says, 'after such an appeal, he feels called upon to acknowledge the greatest obligations.' He adds; 'the passage quoted in support of this imputation applies particularly to a prominent defect in the otherwise admirable writings of Miss Edgeworth.'

We most readily insert this correction, on such unquestionable authority: but certainly we apprehended, at the time, that the criticism applied to the noble poet in question; though the line

'Then how shall SHE, the Moral Muse, atone,'

might have led us to suspect our conjecture.

W. F.'s letter has arrived, and we will inquire concerning the object of it.

The reader is requested to correct a material though minute error in our last Number, occasioned by indistinct writing: viz. in page 245., line penult., and p. 246., lines 1, 2. 8. 15. and 19., the word *well* should be *wall*.

* * The APPENDIX to Vol. lxxxviii. of the M. R. will be published on the 1st of June with the Number for May.

✂ Subscribers to the GENERAL INDEX to the New Series of the Monthly Review, and all possessors of sets of that portion of the work, are requested to apply speedily for copies of so necessary a key to this multifarious record of literature, without which their sets will not be complete; a very limited number of the Index having been printed.



THE
 APPENDIX
 TO THE
 EIGHTY-EIGHTH VOLUME
 OF THE
 MONTHLY REVIEW,
 ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Le Regne Animal*, &c.; i.e. The Animal Kingdom, distributed according to its Organization; being intended as a Basis for the Natural History of Animals, and an Introduction to Comparative Anatomy, by M. Le Chevalier CUVIER, Ordinary Counsellor of State, Perpetual Secretary of the Academy of Sciences of the Royal Institute, &c. &c. With Figures drawn from Nature. 4 Vols. 8vo. Paris.

DURING thirty years of his life, the Chevalier CUVIER devoted much of his time and appropriate talents to the investigation of the diversities of animal structure, and was naturally prompted to adopt organical distinctions as the basis of a new arrangement of classes, orders, genera, and species. In the prosecution of this design, he could expect little efficient aid from the labours of preceding writers; because, although *Daubenton* and *Camper* had furnished many valuable insulated facts, and *Pallas* had sketched some general views, none of them had materially contributed to the foundation of any systematical or consecutive analysis of the animal kingdom. With respect to the *Systema Naturæ* of *Linné*, it can scarcely be said to rest on anatomical principles; and the alterations and additions, introduced into it by *Gmelin*, have too often only served to multiply the confusion and errors which they were intended to remove. The generic

and specific amount of some of the particular subdivisions of animated nature have, indeed, been greatly enlarged by recent zoologists: but their definitions are chiefly founded on external characters, and seldom refer to peculiarities of internal conformation. Thus circumstanced, the celebrated author of these volumes was in some measure constrained to strike out a path for himself, to combine the studies of anatomy and zoology, and, in a great many cases, to regulate the details of his classification by the results of actual dissection.

The first fruits of the Chevalier's researches, conducted on these philosophical principles, appeared in 1795, under the form of a memoir on a new division of white-blooded animals; a sketch of his general divisions was exhibited in his *Elementary View of Animals*, printed in 1798; and the same tabular *prospectus*, considerably improved, was subjoined to the first volume of his *Lectures on Comparative Anatomy*, published in 1800. A close inspection of the most approved systems of zoology having revealed numberless incongruities and glaring defects, he was induced to apply his canons of distribution to a more detailed and methodical exposition of the animal creation: but, aware that the completion of such a task is not to be effected by the unaided efforts of any single individual, though favoured with length of days and uninterrupted leisure, he gladly embraced the rare opportunities which his situation afforded for the practical developement of his purpose.

'Residing,' says he, 'among so many able naturalists, deriving instruction from their works in proportion as they appeared, consulting as freely as they themselves the collections which were effected by their cares, and having also formed a very considerable one myself, peculiarly suited to my object, my labour was almost reduced to the use which I should make of so many rich materials. It was impossible, for example, that much could remain for the exercise of my pen respecting shells that had been studied by *de la Marck*, or quadrupeds described by *Geoffroi*. The numerous relations recognized by *de la Cépède* all become rallying points in my arrangement of fishes; and *le Vaillant*, among so many beautiful birds, collected from every quarter, perceived certain details of organization, which I forthwith adapted to my scheme of distribution. My own researches, under the fostering and imposing influence of others, furnished me with fruits which they never would have yielded, had they all been confined within the limits of my personal exertions. Thus, *MM. de Blainville* and *Oppel*, from their examination of the anatomical preparations which I destined to be the bases of my divisions of reptiles, anticipated, with more ability perhaps than I could have manifested, results which I had merely surmized.

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' These reflections encouraged me ; and I resolved to preface my *Treatise on Comparative Anatomy* by a sort of abridged system of animals, in which I might exhibit their divisions and subdivisions in all their gradations, and arranged in conformity with their internal and external structure ; indicating such well authenticated species as certainly belong to each of the subdivisions ; and, with the view of imparting additional interest to the performance, entering into some details relative to those of the species which are rendered more remarkable by their abundance in our own country, the services which we derive from them, the injuries which they occasion to us, the peculiarities of their manners and economy, and their extraordinary forms, beauty, or dimensions.'

M. DE C. also flatters himself that he shall render an important service to young naturalists, who are seldom conscious of the many critical errors which occur in the most approved systems ; and to anatomists, who often require to be instructed as to what class or order of animals their researches should be directed, with reference to particular departments of their profession. Under these impressions, he has devoted a preferable share of attention to those tribes which are furnished with a vertebral column, to the naked mollusca, and to the larger zoophytes : but, he adds, ' the innumerable varieties of the external forms of shells and corals, the microscopical animals, and the other families which act no very ostensible part in nature, or which offer little scope to the exercise of the scalpel, required not to be treated with the same degree of specialty.' We may be allowed, however, to remark that the more simple forms of animation have their destined and important ends, and are better calculated to aid our conjectures with regard to the primary constituents of vitality, than the more complex and refined organic structures. — The author continues :

' In the department of shells and corals, I might safely appeal to the work which *M. de la Marck* is at present publishing, and in which will be found all that the most ardent thirst for knowledge can demand.

' With respect to the insects, so interesting by their external forms, by their organs, by their habits, by their influence on the whole of living nature, I have had the good fortune to receive assistance, which, by rendering my work incomparably more perfect than if it had proceeded from my own hand, has greatly accelerated its publication. My friend and colleague, *M. Latreille*, who of all men in Europe has most profoundly studied these animals, has had the goodness to exhibit in a single volume, and nearly in the same order which I have followed in the other departments, a summary of his vast labours, and an abridged view of those innumerable genera which entomologists cease not

‘ For the rest, if in some places I have given less extent to the exposition of the subordinate genera and species, this inequality does not prevail in the superior divisions, nor in the indications of affinities ; which I have always fixed on bases equally solid, by bestowing the same degree of assiduity on all my researches.’

The Chevalier then proceeds to mention that he subjected to particular examination every species that he could procure in a state of nature ; that, as often as circumstances permitted, he dissected at least one species of each subordinate genus ; and that, after having determined the names of the species which he had observed, and which had formerly been either well described or delineated, he ranged under the same category those which he had not seen, but of which he had met with figures sufficiently accurate or descriptions sufficiently precise to remove all doubts as to their natural relations ; while he wholly omitted many vague notices, which have only contributed to confound and embarrass the catalogue of living beings. Although he might have enriched his volumes by the insertion of many new species, yet, as he could not illustrate them by plates, and must consequently have extended his descriptions beyond the limits assigned to his plan, he preferred to pass over them in silence. We could certainly have wished, however, that he had at least named and briefly defined every species that has been distinctly ascertained, even at the expence of curtailing his accounts of some of those with which we are more familiarly acquainted ; since, in that case, he would have supplied us with a more complete index of names and characters, and with a commodious substitute for the bulky and faulty enumerations of *Gmelin*.

M. CUVIER professes to have shewn the propriety of those changes which he has introduced into the arrangement ; and he has not left any portion of former nomenclatures untouched, without convincing himself by examination that they needed no alteration. Of the nature of the inquiries on which he founds his divisions and subdivisions, some idea may be formed from his *Memoirs on the Mollusca* : but he assures us that he studied with equal attention the external and internal forms of the vertebral animals, the *annelides*, the *zoophytes*, and many insects and *crustacea* ; which may, indeed, be inferred from his numerous preparations, deposited in the Cabinet of Comparative Anatomy in the King’s garden. In his critical discussion of species, and in his verification of figures quoted by various authors, he has also evinced no ordinary degree of laborious and minute investigation. At the same time, to spare his reader some trouble, he has selected

selected a principal author for each class, and has avoided to quote subordinate books, except when they supply some defect in the primary works, or essentially contribute to the adjustment of the synonymy. In consequence, also, of a discreet restriction of technical arrangement and phraseology, he has continued to bring an immense field of widely diversified materials within the most reasonable and commodious bounds. — With the view of obviating unnecessary criticism, he disavows all intention of constructing his system according to the method of alleged gradations, which, he believes, have no existence in nature; and he is desirous that his divisions and distinctions should be considered as only the graduated expressions of the resemblance of the beings to which they refer. The ensuing paragraphs will apprize our readers of some of the principal alterations of arrangement to which he has had recourse, and of the manner in which he appreciates the exertions of certain distinguished writers in different departments of zoology :

‘ In the class of mammiferous animals, I have restored the solipeds to the *pachydermata*, dividing the latter into families, according to new views ; I have thrown the ruminants into the rear of the quadrupeds ; I have approximated the *manatis* to the *cetacea* ; I have somewhat differently distributed the order of predacious quadrupeds ; I have separated the *onistilis* from the whole genus of *apes* ; I have indicated a sort of analogy between the marsupial animals and the other digitated *mammifera* ; and all this in consequence of my own anatomical studies. The recent and profound labours of my friend and colleague, M. *Geoffroy de Saint Hilaire*, have served as the basis of all that I have advanced with regard to the *quadrumanæ* and the bats. The researches of my brother, M. *Frédéric Cuvier*, respecting the teeth of the predacious and gnawing quadrupeds, have been of very great service to me in framing the subordinate genera of these two orders. The genera of the late M. *Illiger* are little else than the results of these same researches, and of those of some foreign naturalists : yet I have adopted his names as often as his genera have coincided with my sub-genera. M. *de la Cépède* has also conceived and indicated many excellent divisions of this stage of the arrangement, which I have, in like manner, eagerly embraced : but the characters of all the stations, and all the notices of species, have been taken from nature, either in the dissecting-room or in the galleries of the Museum.

‘ The same observations apply to the birds : but I had examined, with the greatest attention, more than four thousand individuals in the Museum. I had arranged them according to my own views, and during more than five years, in the public gallery ; extracting from them all that part of the work which relates to the class in question : so that any examples of coincidence, which

may be observed between my sub-divisions and certain recent arrangements, are, on my part, purely accidental.

I hope that naturalists will approve the numerous sub-genera which I have instituted among the predacious, passerine, and littoral birds, and which appear to me to have introduced the greatest precision among genera formerly much entangled. I have noted as accurately as I could the accordance of these sub-divisions with the genera of MM. *de la Cépède*, *Meyer*, *Wolf*, *Temminck*, and *Savigny*; and I have referred to each all the species concerning which I have been enabled to procure very satisfactory information. This fatiguing task will gratify those who, in future, may be occupied with a genuine history of birds. The fine ornithological works published within these few years, and particularly those of M. *le Vaillant*, which are fraught with many interesting observations, and those of M. *Vieillot*, have been extremely useful, by putting it in my power to designate the species which they represent.

The general division of this class has remained such as I had published it in 1798, in my *Elementary View*.*

In his distribution of the reptiles, M. CUVIER has retained the general divisions of *Brongniart*, while he grounds his ulterior sub-divisions on his own anatomical examinations. *Daudin*'s work, notwithstanding its mediocrity, has also furnished him with various particular indications; and his arrangement of the families of *Monitors*, and *Geckos*, has been deduced from the actual inspection of the numerous specimens which *Péron* and *Geoffroy* have recently added to the Museum.

With regard to the fishes, the large supplement made to the same ample collection, since the publication of the Count *de la Cépède*'s work, had induced the Chevalier to vary the combinations of genera and species, and to multiply the anatomical observations. His opportunities, besides, permitted him to verify more accurately than they had hitherto been ascertained the kinds mentioned or imported by *Commerçon*, those which were brought from the ocean and the Indian archipelago by *Péron*, those which he had himself collected in the Mediterranean, the specimens gathered on the Coromandel coast by *Sonnerat*, in the Isle of France by *Mathieu*, and in the Nile and the Red Sea by *Geoffroy*, &c.; besides

* I make this observation merely because an estimable naturalist, M. *Vieillot*, in a work which he published in the year 1816, inadvertently attributed to himself the union of the *picæ* and *passeres*; whereas I had established it in 1798. I should here, however, express my regret at not having had it in my power to avail myself of his production, which did not appear till long after my first volume had been printed off.

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preparing anatomically the skeletons and viscera of most of the secondary genera. Thus the ichthyological department has been rendered one of the most novel and complete of any in the course of the work.

In a former article *, we adverted to the length of time and minuteness of attention which the Chevalier had devoted to the study of the *Mollusca*, especially of the naked sorts.

‘The determination of that class,’ he observes, ‘as well as its divisions and subdivisions, rest on my own observations. The magnificent work of *M. Poli* had anticipated me only in respect of certain descriptions, and in anatomical details subservient to my design, but limited to the multivalves and bivalves. I have verified all the facts with which that able anatomist has furnished me; and I think that I have pointed out with more precision the functions of some of the organs. I have also endeavoured to ascertain the animals to which the principal forms of shells belong, and to distribute the latter accordingly: but, with respect to the ulterior divisions of shells, of which the animals resemble one another, I have touched on them no farther than it was necessary to obtain a distinct exposition of those which have been admitted by Messrs. *de la Marck* and *de Montfort*; and even the limited number of genera and sub-genera, of my own institution, are principally deduced from inspection of the animals. The examples which I have quoted are confined to a certain number of the species proposed by *Martini*, *Chemnitz*, *Lister*, and *Soldani*; and merely because it was requisite to fix the attention of my readers on precise objects, during the non-appearance of the volume in which *M. de la Marck* intends to treat of this part of his subject. I profess not, however, to have bestowed the same critical attention on the selection and determination of these species, as on those of the vertebral animals and the naked *mollusca*.

‘The skilful observations of Messrs. *Savigny*, *Lesueur*, and *Desmarests*, on the compound *ascidiae*, approximate this last family of *mollusca* to certain orders of *zoophytes*; — a curious affinity, and an additional proof that animals cannot be arranged on one and the same line.

‘I conceive that I have extricated the *annelides* (of which the institution is in fact my own, although I did not invent their name,) from the state of confusion in which they formerly lay blended with the *mollusca*, *testacea*, and *zoophytes*, and that I have reduced them into the natural order; even their genera being solely indebted for some degree of perspicuity to the definite notices which I had assigned to them in the Dictionary of Natural Sciences, and in other writings.

‘I shall say nothing of the three classes contained in the third volume. *M. Latreille*, the sole author of that part, (with the exception of some anatomical details which I have interposed in his text, in conformity with my own observations and those of

* See our last Appendix, Art. I.

M. Ramdohr,) will explain, in his advertisement, the particulars of his own labours.

With reference to the *zoophytes*, which terminate the animal kingdom, my exposition of the *echinodermata* has derived considerable aid from the recent work of M. de la Marck; and, with regard to the intestinal worms, from the publication of M. Rudolphi, intitled *Entozoa*: but I have performed the anatomy of all the genera, some of which were first ascertained by myself. Moreover, an excellent work on the anatomy of the *echinodermata*, by M. Tiedeman, to which the Institute some years ago adjudged a prize, will soon appear, and completely exhaust the history of these curious animals. As the corals and infusorial animals present scarcely any scope to the anatomist, I have treated of them very briefly. The new work of M. de la Marck will here supply my deficiencies.

By combining the preceding observations with the general titles of his divisions, the outline and complexion of the Chevalier's plan may be readily apprehended. In pursuance of a memoir formerly inserted in the *Annales du Muséum*, he divides the animal kingdom into four great branches or types, which he denominates *Vertebrata*, *Mollusca*, *Articulata*, and *Radiata*. The *Vertebrata*, we need scarcely remark, include such animals as have the brain and principal nervous cord enveloped in a bony case, composed of the skull and vertebræ, and with the muscles attached to the bones: the *Mollusca* have the brain and principal portion of the nervous system placed near the œsophagus, and the muscles attached to the skin: in the *Articulata*, the nervous system consists of two longitudinal knotted cords, situated in the belly, and the muscles are attached to the external covering, which is generally hard and always articulated; and the *Radiata* are distinguished by the want of a nervous system, and having the body of a radiated structure. These great divisions are again distributed into classes: thus the *Vertebrata* comprize *Mammalia*, *Aves*, *Reptilia*, and *Pisces*; the *Mollusca* are subdivided into *Cephalopoda*, *Pteropoda*, *Gasteropoda*, *Acephala*, *Brachiopoda*, and *Cirrhopoda*; the *Articulata* into *Annelides*, *Crustacea*, *Arachnides*, and *Insecta*; and the *Radiata* into *Echinodermata*, *Intestina*, *Acalephæ*, *Polypoda*, and *Infusoria*.

To discuss the comparative degrees of judgment, or of accuracy, with which the author has unfolded these several portions of his scheme, would greatly trespass on the bounds of a summary analysis: but, before we close our report, we may be permitted to indulge in a few general remarks.

Much stress, we are perfectly aware, has been laid on the superior precision and on the philosophical spirit which

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characterize the most approved arrangements of natural objects that have been proposed by the most eminent members of the French school; and we would not willingly detract from the utmost credit to which their discerning and considerate admirers may deem them intitled. To those who are already familiar with the history of any one department of animated nature, a synoptical sketch of its multiplied sections, grounded on peculiarities of external and internal structure, may prove a valuable instrument of generalizing previous knowledge: but we may entertain doubts whether it is fitted to be of much ready and practical service as a system of reference to the uninitiated student; whose object is to discriminate genera and species with the least possible loss of time and trouble, and who may want both the leisure and the ability which are required for conducting anatomical operations. The mode of ascertaining the name and station of an animal by its external characters may be less scientific, but it is more prompt and commodious; and, although the Linnéan distributions, in their present condition, are still very open to criticism, they are susceptible of much extension and improvement on their own principles.

The volumes before us also draw our attention to another consideration; namely, that a regular and complete ordonnance of all known living creatures is an undertaking, which, however meritorious, greatly transcends the powers and opportunities of the most favoured individual. Few zoologists, we will readily admit, could bring to the execution of such a project more acquired knowledge, more assiduity of research, or more ample means of information, than the present distinguished naturalist; and yet we have seen that he has gladly had recourse to the co-operation of a friend to set in array the numerous insect-tribes, and that he has referred to other books for a satisfactory nomenclature of some of the inferior classes. Of the remaining portions of the work, not excepting the most elaborate, it cannot be expected that they should be wholly free from error or defect. The introduction, which occupies upwards of sixty pages, contains some pertinent and acute remarks on the proper objects of natural history, on organization and vitality, on the division of organized beings into vegetables and animals, on the appropriate forms of the organic elements of animal bodies, on the forces which act on the latter, on the functions of the organs and their various degrees of complication, on the intellectual processes of animals, on the application of method to the animal kingdom, and on the general distribution of this last into four great divisions. Some of these topics,

topics, from their very nature, are obviously involved in obscurity, and may give rise to great diversity of sentiment. They are, moreover, here treated in too summary a manner to be the legitimate objects of detailed criticism, or of metaphysical argumentation. Let it suffice, therefore, to state that, if we cannot always yield assent to the author's doctrines, we can seldom charge him with any disregard of perspicuity; and that, had his plan admitted of a wider range of illustration, he might have thrown a clearer light on some of his more questionable positions. The arrangement of the *mammalia* is probably too complex to be of much practical utility; — the birds are disposed in a more simple and lucid order, which, in its outlines, does not greatly differ from that of Linné; — the vocabulary of fishes is more voluminous than any that we recollect to have consulted; while the method, according to which it has been disposed, more or less partakes of the advantages and disadvantages of that which was adopted by the Count *de la Cépède*; — and the insects are exhibited with care and judgment, and occasionally with interest, although more in accordance with M. CUVIER's principles of arrangement than with those of *Latreille* himself. The fourth volume presents us with a very meagre and superficial exposition of the radiated families; to which are subjoined an alphabetical table of authors quoted in the work, various corrections and additions, explanations of the plates, and a general index. The number of plates being limited to fifteen, a preference has been given to such figures as might convey correct impressions of species hitherto imperfectly represented; or of such anatomical parts as are necessary for the apprehension of the technical terms: which latter, we should do the author the justice to mention, are introduced with a commendable discretion. Instances of apparent haste and carelessness are more numerous than we could have anticipated; yet the work must have been the result of years of meditation, and of much complex, patient, and toilsome research.

In conclusion, we have to congratulate the public, when we announce to them that the systematical arrangement of the animal kingdom, which forms the subject of the present article, is only introductory to a more extensive and important work on comparative anatomy; the materials and preparations for which are already in such a train of forwardness, that successive portions of the design may be executed either by the author himself, or, in the event of his declining health or demise, by those who may be induced to undertake the continuation of his labours.

ART. II. *Histoire et Mémoires, &c.*; i. e. History and Memoirs of the Royal Institute of France, Class of History and Antient Literature, Vol. III. 4to. Paris. 1818.

THE publications of the Class of History, &c. in the French Institute press on us rather closely. We undertake on the present occasion the examination of the third, but the fourth is at the same time lying uncut on our table.

Of the present volume, the contents (as usual) admit of a triple division. The first portion, under the title of *History of the Class*, contains a series of papers abridged and compressed by M. Dacier, the secretary, or some other official hand. The second furnishes biographical sketches of deceased members of the society, which on this occasion are limited to those of two individuals. The third, and most considerable, proceeds with the publication of original memoirs in their full dimensions, some of them on so very extended a scale as almost to deserve the epithet voluminous.

The first of these portions may be considered more as a summary of literary transactions, than as a publication of literary researches. On some occasions, we are rather apprized that certain topics have been discussed, and that such or such opinions have been the result of the examination, than informed of the regular process by which the authors arrived at their deductions; and the papers of this class are also numerous in almost as great a proportion as they are short. We will give the titles of all of them, that our readers may be fully informed of the general contents of the volume, and consequently have a key for consulting it on any subject on which they may severally happen to be interested: but we must necessarily abstain from entering on the particulars of many, from a regard to other matters which have an equal or a greater claim to our pages.

The *History of the Labours of the Class* commences with the examination of a memoir by M. Lévêque on the *Pharmaceutria* or *Magician* of Theocritus. This is a subject which has been illustrated with some elegant criticism in our own country. The present writer prefaces his remarks on this poem of Theocritus with observations on the inaccuracy of applying the modern term *idyls*, *εἰδύλλια*, to pastoral poetry exclusively, and proposes a phrase equivalent to our *fugitive pieces* as a more proper translation of the original word, and a more precise definition of the modern term. This latter is, we believe, of French origin in its recent sense, and is not very frequently used by us, unless when alluding to French works which have borne that title. The term *εἰδύλλια* has been

been applied to the poems of Pindar, and the word under remark is indisputably a mere diminutive of it; so far, then, M. *Lévesque* seems to be classically correct: but we have some doubts whether the Romans did not often confine it to the modern acceptation in which the word *idyls* is usually taken; for we may observe that Virgil introduces a poem strictly resembling that of Theocritus, and in a great measure borrowed from it, among his *Bucolics*. The scene, certainly, in the Roman poet, is pastoral, and in the Greek it is not so: but the simple circumstance of the former having borrowed so largely from the latter, and introduced it in the manner which he has adopted, affords some ground for the supposition, that he considered it as more nearly allied to his own peculiar subjects than the French critic seems to allow.

Omitting M. *Lévesque*'s general remarks on the poem, we briefly advert to his observations on the lines

Ὡς τῷτον τὸν καρὸν ἐγὼ σὺν δαίμονι τάκω,
 Ὡς τάκοις' ὑπ' ἑρώος ὁ Μύνδιος αὐτίκα Δέλφης.
 Ἢ ὡς δινεῖθ' ὁδε ῥόμβος ὁ χάλκεος, ἐξ Ἀφροδίτας
 Ὡς κείνος δινοῖτο πόθ' ἀμείτρησι δύρησιν. Idyll 2. v. 28.

Virgil writes,

"*Limus ut hic durescit, et hæc ut cera liquescit
 Uno eodemque igni: sic nostro Daphnis amore.*"

This first mode of incantation, a species of denotement either by type or effigy, is not unknown in the annals of more modern sorcery. M. *Lévesque* cites the case of such an attempt, made by Robert Comte d'Artois against Philip of Valois, before he broke into open rebellion; and instances nearly or altogether similar might be afforded by our own history in the sixteenth century. The form is simple; and the process of imagination in which it originated is by no means difficult to be traced, although the precise time of its rise may be obscure from its antiquity. There is more difficulty as to the magical instrument called ὁ ῥόμβος χάλκεος. *Reiske*, at best an unsatisfactory commentator, says nothing on the subject, and sarcastically remarks of a brother-labourer who does advert to it, "*Mirror hominis diligentiam.*" M. *Lévesque* tries to decide the form of this tinkling machine, as it appears to have been, but unsuccessfully, because sundry authorities seem to allow it nearly as many shapes. A passage in Macrobius accounts for the use of brass as the material for its composition: "*Omnino autem ad rem divinam pleræque æneæ adhibere solita, multa indicio sunt; et in his maxime sacris,*

sacris, in quibus delinire aliquos, aut devovere, aut denique exigere morbos volebant."

On the still more difficult question of the word *ἱούξ*, we have here no new information; and it has been a matter of inquiry among so many scholars, that it would be idle to repeat the different notions respecting it which are promulgated in this paper.

In a notice respecting *the Earthen Ware of the Antients*, of a red colour, it is stated that M. Mongez, in a memoir on the subject, has observed of the remains of this nature which have been discovered in France, that they were composed of an earth naturally red and ochreous, and subsequently coated with the same; so that, when applied to the purposes of luxury, they were incapable of communicating any insalubrious taint to their contents, being free from any metallic substance. Some curious information is given relative to the form of the furnaces, and the degrees of intensity in which heat was applied to this manufacture in its different stages.

From a paper on *Stone Coffins*, we learn that in many parts of France considerable collections of these depositories have been found, which for the most part appear never to have been applied to the usual purpose; and hence the French antiquaries have puzzled themselves to ascertain the reason for these articles being amassed, as it were, in magazines. M. Mongez has now arrived at the conclusion which we might have expected to have been previously adopted, that the places in question were the work-shops and yards of the artificers; and the vicinity of these magazines to quarries affording the proper material appears decisive of the question. They are universally made of some calcareous stone. It seems probable that they were in use among the Franks after the introduction of Christianity, for Cæsar says that the Gauls burned their dead: the Romans, doubtless, generally did the same; and we learn from Macrobius that it was not until the fourth and fifth centuries of our æra that they made use of coffins. If, then, they were not prevalent among either of the former people, it becomes a matter of certainty that they must be referred to the time at which the Franks were associated with the Gauls. It is rather ludicrous that the same inscription on one of them has been decyphered by one antiquary as the word *Domine*, and by another as *Diis manibus*.

A paper next occurs relative to the *Pewter of the Romans*, and states some chemical experiments that have been performed by M. Mongez on specimens of this metal, the composition of which has never been accurately defined. The result

result has been the discovery of a mixture of lead with the pewter, in the proportion of somewhat more than one-third, and the absence of arsenic and copper.

By a memoir on the words *Argilla*, *Creta*, and *Marga*, we are apprized of some efforts which have been made, also by M. Mongez, for providing modern definitions for these terms in antient geology.

We again encounter this indefatigable writer in an inquiry respecting the *Citrus* and *Thyion* of the antients. Pliny and Theophrastus speak of these trees as common on Mount Atlas, and the region of Cyrene in Africa: but it appears from modern travellers, as far as those parts are known, that they have ceased to exist there. Such changes are not uncommon in the vegetable history of the globe; and in some instances the causes are evident, while in others they are more remote: but, at all events, speculations on them, in a country so little explored, would be vain. M. Mongez says that this *Citrus* has been confounded with the *Citronnier* of the French, our lemon-tree, and gives also as synonyms the *Malus Persica*, *Medica*, and *Assyria*: but surely the *Malus Persica* has always been considered as a very distinct tree from the *Citrus*, and bearing a totally different fruit. We perceive not any novelty in the observation that the *Citrus* of Atlas, as described by Pliny, is totally different from what is called a Citron-tree by us, and from what was also called *Citrus* by the antients on other occasions: — the fact is too generally acknowledged to receive any corroboration from the addition of one more authority in support of it. We may have greater difficulty in deciding to what class this tree does belong, than in pronouncing from what classes it is excluded. M. Mongez has gone far to prove that this *Citrus*, and the *Thyium* also, (which, if not the same tree, is nearly allied to it,) are no other than the *Juniperus Thurifera* of Linné: — according to Tournefort, "*Cedrus Hispanica procerior fructu maxime nigro*;" — and called by Miller, *Juniperus foliis quadrifariam imbricatis acutis*.

Some brief remarks follow, on a coloured Vase brought from Sicily, by the celebrated M. Visconti; and they are accompanied by an elegant and apparently correct delineation of the painting on the vase, representing a single female figure approaching a fountain issuing from a lion's mouth, to take up an ewer which has been placed on a slab beneath, for the purpose of being filled. The left hand of the figure collects the drapery of the dress, and holds it aside as if to prevent it from becoming moistened by the spray of the fountain. The subject is unimportant, but the representation is elegant. A

kind of aquatic plant, designed, we conceive, a little arbitrarily by the artist, fills a considerable part of the drawing. The remarks are chiefly occasioned by the grotesque ornament of the lion's head, and by an inscription of three Greek words. The former fashion is very ingeniously derived from the Egyptian colonists in Greece; and, however high the antiquity may be, it does not seem to invalidate the analogy which the author has traced between the use of it in the representation of fountains, and the superstitions of Egypt. The lion was with them an emblem of Horus, or the season of the overflow of the Nile; and hence it became, by a very natural process, symbolical of water. The author's accurate knowledge of the relics of antiquity, and his acquaintance with the most famous specimens of it, have enabled him to trace this emblematical device through several ages; and he conceives the figure to be that of the nymph Anchirröe, as it seems to him the repetition of a model well known to him.

Δέχε, Τῆρε, Πάρο; *accipe, serva, posside*; are, according to M. Visconti, the words of the legend.

Remarks on a Greek Inscription discovered near Athens.— This inscription was communicated by M. Fauvel to M. Mongez, from Athens, and is here discussed by M. Visconti: it can interest only the professed antiquary.

Reflections on the Character of Charlemagne, by M. Ch. de Dalberg, Foreign Associate. — That Charlemagne was a most extraordinary man for the age in which he lived, and with the opportunity would have been an extraordinary man in any age, will not, we suppose, admit of a doubt; and the comprehensive nature of his views was even more remarkable than the means which he took to compass them, or the success which attended his endeavours. Yet we cannot, M. de Dalberg, set aside the motives that are to be deduced from ambition, and refer all his conspicuous actions to the desire of civilizing barbarous Europe, and extending the influence of religion and the social arts. Let us give the *love of glory* a due share in his composition; and then, if we do not raise him to so exalted an eminence, we clearly bring him nearer to the standard of human excellence. We have heard of conquerors who have become philosophers, but of few philosophers who have become conquerors. The vein of panegyric seems to be overstrained throughout these *Reflections*: for, in condemning as faults in private life the incontinence of this great man, and his proneness to violent anger, the writer observes that even these acknowledged blemishes proceeded from an excess of the most estimable qualities.

This

This mode of screening and excusing moral defects is as trite as it is unphilosophical.

Some Historical Inquiries respecting the *Fifth Letter of Ives of Chartres* are founded on a Memoir on this subject by M. Brial. — This learned Bishop of Chartres lived about the close of the eleventh century, and his letters in the Latin language, which are extant, are probably not unknown to those who have studied the history of the dark ages. The fifth in the collection is addressed to Adela Countess of Chartres and Blois, daughter of William the Conqueror, and wife to Stephen, father of the king of that name who succeeded Henry I. on the throne of England. The letter is of a moral tendency, and reproaches this lady with encouraging an adulterous connection between a female cousin of the name of Adelaide, and a person simply called William, without any title or other name appended. The object of M. Brial's researches is to ascertain who these two persons were; not as a mere matter of excusable curiosity, but conceiving that the solution of the question would throw light on the Norman annals of that period.

M. Brial has also instituted researches concerning the Origin and Antiquity of some *Columns or Crosses, now remaining at St. Denis*, on the road to Paris. — This is a matter suitable, doubtless, to the topographical and antiquarian researches of our neighbours, but offering little interest to us.

The same writer appears again in a Memoir on a *New Interpretation of the Surname of Capet*, given to the head of the third race of the French kings. — The etymologies of this surname have not all been of the most flattering description to him who first bore it. An anonymous author, who wrote a chronicle at Tours about the middle of the twelfth century, bestows this name on Charles the *Simple*; and renders it synonymous with *insensé*, or our word *silly*. "*Carolus stultus vel Capet*" are his words. We have quoted this interpretation from M. Brial, but we cannot agree with him that such is the necessary signification of the passage; which may fairly be understood as meaning only *Charles the Simple, otherwise called Charles Capet*, and needs not imply any similarity between the two words. We may speak of William the First as William the Conqueror, or William Duke of Normandy, and mean the same person, but the several terms by which we describe the said William would have no reference to each other. Hugh Capet was altogether a different character from the former prince, but the same name is applied to him. The common derivation, M. Brial says, has been from the Latin word *capito*, signifying in a

bad sense a *blockhead*, in a good sense a *man of good parts*. As, however, we are equally at a loss with this writer where to discover the word in the latter acceptation, we may give it up:—but a more qualified meaning of *capito* occurs in Latin authors; viz. that of *bold impudent fellows*, in which sense the lexicographers compare it with the “*os durum*” of Terence. It is difficult, however, to say how far a word of no very definite acceptation might have been applied by monkish writers in the age in question.

To omit other interpretations, the surmise of M. Brial is that the name *Capet* is derived from the French word *chape*, the cope or head-dress of an ecclesiastic; and that it alludes to the cap of St. Martin, which was held in great veneration as a kind of palladium, and carried before the kings when they went to war.

Report concerning the Researches made among the Archives of Government, and other public Depositories, at Genoa, by M. Silvestre de Sacy.—M. de S. was commissioned to undertake these researches into the archives of Genoa in the year 1805, by the Class of History, &c. in the Institute. The immediate object was the discovery of several manuscripts in different languages of the East, which were supposed to be deposited there; and which it was presumed might partly have been brought thither from Mohammedan countries in which the Genoese arms had been victorious, and also consist partly of collections of treaties, &c. with such states, derived from the European consulships in North Africa and elsewhere: all of which might throw light on the splendid æra of Genoese commerce. These expectations, however, may be considered as altogether overthrown. The archives of Genoa are of two classes: 1. public, which relate to the private rights of the citizens; and 2. private, containing the annals of diplomacy and similar documents. It was in the latter class that M. de Sacy made his researches: but, with the exception of two treaties in Arabic with a Moorish sovereign of the Balearic isles, and one in the Armenian, he found no works in oriental languages that had any reference to his object. A similar inquiry had been pursued in the year 1798, of which the primary object was the history of Liguria, its dependencies, and commercial relations; and some information was gained on these subjects by the report of the investigators: but, after all, it is characterized as a hasty and rather superficial production.

M. de Sacy did not, however, return altogether with empty hands, but obtained many documents which might form valuable historical materials for an account of the establish-

ments of the Genoese in the Black Sea, and the coasts and isles of the Mediterranean, from the beginning of the twelfth to the latter end of the fifteenth century. They do not, indeed, by any means, form a regular historical series, the blank intervals being long and frequent: but they offer a considerable mass of materials for many detached periods of the rise and fall of the commercial greatness of Genoa. — An appendix is published with this memoir, which may be singularly useful to any person who makes the history of the Italian states the object of his studies: it comprizes a sort of *catalogue raisonnée* of the most important *κειμήλια* in these archives, as relating to the subjects introduced.

With this report the first portion of the volume concludes, and we arrive at the BIOGRAPHICAL NOTICES, by M. DACIER, Perpetual Secretary. The first paper contains the life of M. Camus, celebrated among his countrymen for his knowledge of ecclesiastical law, his “*Lettres sur la Profession d’Avocat*,” and other legal works. He held also a conspicuous station as a naturalist, translated the famous treatise on Animals by Aristotle, and was engaged in the collection of historical materials for a great national work. His decease took place in 1804. — M. Anquetil du Perron, the indefatigable investigator of oriental languages, forms the subject of the second biographical sketch: he closed his earthly and literary career together, in 1805, at the age of seventy-four. Another example is afforded in the life of this singular and learned man, and such examples have not been rare among the literati of France, of the power which mental resources sometimes possess in rendering their master indifferent to external dangers and privations; as well as of the security which the abstractions of learning have afforded against that despondence and despair, with which the accumulated evils of fortune break down the minds of those men who converse only with the present, and are affected solely by the events which are constantly passing before their eyes.

MEMOIRS.

This division commences with a second disquisition by M. MONGEZ on the *Agricultural Implements of the Antients*. In his first memoir, which we noticed on a former occasion, he discussed the form, as well original as improved by successive inventions, of the antient plough: in the present, he proceeds with other instruments of husbandry, but confines himself to such as were applicable to tillage, pasture-land, or the culture of the vine. We may observe of his arrange-

ment that his *genera* are very few, and his *species* very numerous. His method is to select the most simple instrument of any one class, to describe its form and the uses to which it was applied, and, having confirmed his remarks by citations from antient writers, (especially those who have treated *de re rusticâ*,) to assign such other implements to this genus as appear to him to have been deviations from the original model in different countries, or gradual improvements formed on it; according as varieties of soil, of situation, or of application, suggested such alterations. To these different species he also allots such names in his own language, as he conceives to represent implements bearing an affinity to them.

La bêche, the spade, or shovel, as it is one of the most simple, is naturally one of the most antient implements of husbandry. The oldest name among the Greeks appears to have been *πλοῦν*, answering to the *pala* of the Romans. In both languages, the same name is given to an instrument for exciting wind in the process of winnowing. Among the Romans, the *pala*, as applied to this latter purpose, was a compound tool; while that which was used for digging was a simple one, and the addition of some explanatory adjective marks its use and construction. The same facility is not afforded us in the Greek word, which is almost invariably used in the second signification, and probably ceased to represent the first implement when the slightest addition was made to its primary construction. We do not recollect any passage in which it is to be found in the meaning here required: we expected to find it, if any where, in Hesiod, but have been disappointed in our search; and we regret, therefore, that M. MONGEZ has not given an explicit reference; for he is too accurate a writer to allow us to doubt his ability to have done this. We are aware that some *glossaries* do afford such an interpretation.

The hoe (*la houe*) is the most considerable genus. A failure occurs in supplying an equally generic name in Latin; for, although *sarcolum* is proposed as such, we find the same word afterward employed as a *species*. Many of the implements under this head, and the majority of simple rural instruments bear an affinity to it, are as probably improvements on the spade as on the hoe. The discriminations between these *derived* implements, as the *marra*, *bidens*, *raster*, *ligo*, *sarcolum*, &c. are stated with much perspicuity: but the frequency of passages among the antients, in which they are used absolutely as synonyms, render such distinctions difficult, unless by a reference to etymology: in which M. MONGEZ has

been much assisted by Varro, Palladius, and a work of the seventh century by Isidorus of Seville.

Memoir on the Origin of the Worship which the Druses paid to the Figure of a Calf. By M. SILVESTRE DE SACY. — The interesting account given of this singular people by M. Volney is probably that with which our readers are most familiar. The present question regards their religion, or at least one portion of it. As a general classification, they are the followers of *Mohammed-ben-Ismael*, the celebrated impostor, who flourished about the year 1000 of our æra; and whose proselytes, when persecuted, took refuge in the mountains of Lebanon, where they formed a political society, of which the modern Druses are the representatives. The secret superstition, which is the subject of this memoir, appears to be quite at variance with their primitive religious tenets; and neither Pococke nor Volney seems to have credited the report, but have treated it as a malicious insinuation. More recent accounts, however, have added much to the credibility of the story, and have led to the very curious researches into its origin which M. DE SACY presented to the Institute.

Memoir on the Family of Callias. By M. CLAVIER. — This author, in his well-known work "*Histoire des premiers Temps de la Grèce*," proposed to close his labours with the fall of the Pisistratidæ: but his subsequent studies tempted him to extend his inquiries, and these memoirs of the family of Callias are the result of them. In part, they certainly fall within the epoch which M. CLAVIER originally illustrated, but they also extend much beyond it; and, although the present is the history of a family only, yet it is much interwoven with Grecian and more particularly with Athenian annals. The members of it bore the names of Callias and Hipponicus alternately, according to the custom of calling a child from his paternal grandfather: but a proof exists that, on some occasions, this rule was not strictly observed, because the name of Hipponicus came into the family in question from the maternal side. A marriage with a sole heiress seems to have been the reason which justified the departure from general custom. — The recurrence of the same name so often, in the same family, tends to confusion in history and chronology; and M. CLAVIER has in nothing laboured with greater success than in assigning to successive members of this house their own respective actions: thus clearing up a mist which rendered many events, referred to persons bearing the name of Callias, indistinct, and apparently inapplicable to the persons of whom they seemed to be recorded. On two points to which the writer is led in the course of his

inves-

investigation, we will say a few words. Callias, the second of the name, held the office of *δαδουχος*, or flambeau-bearer, in the Eleusinian mysteries, (which was hereditary in his family,) at the time of the battle of Marathon, and was consequently coteremporary with Miltiades and his son Cimon. He was a person of great wealth; and some authors record that Miltiades, having failed in his expedition against Paxos, fell into popular odium, was sentenced to pay a fine of fifty talents, and, being unable to disburse that sum, was put into prison, where he died, before the demand was satisfied; that Callias, being enamoured of Elpinice, daughter of Miltiades, offered to pay the fine, if his suit was allowed; and that the fine was thus discharged, on the consent of Cimon her brother. M. CLAVIER treats the whole of this story as fabulous, notwithstanding that it is found both in Plutarch and Cornelius Nepos. It must be granted that these writers are not of themselves, from their age, of much authority: but still they are of so high a class, that we cannot suspect them of having stated facts without some tolerable foundation, deduced from earlier writers, unless the counter-testimony greatly preponderated.

In opposition to these annalists, M. CLAVIER first cites Herodotus; who states that Miltiades died soon after judgment had been given in his cause, and that Cimon his son paid the fine: but he does not speak either of imprisonment or of assistance afforded by Callias. Secondly, M. CLAVIER makes them bear testimony against themselves by quoting their account of the wealth and splendor of Miltiades, which would have rendered assistance superfluous; and, lastly, he refers to the laws of Athens, (and it is this part of the question that makes it curious,) by which it was provided that the non-payment of such a fine was punishable only by a suspension of the rights of citizenship, until the demand was satisfied: but, if the person thus incapacitated did exercise such rights, he might be remanded to a fresh tribunal, and then sentenced to imprisonment. This exposition of the law has been drawn by the present author from Demosthenes in *Timocratem*. In addition, we may observe that it appears from the orations of Libanius, that not only a public debtor was *ἄλιμος* while he remained so, but that the son, in case of the decease of the former, became equally so till satisfaction had been made.* There were more degrees than one of this *ἄλμια*, but we are not aware that any extended to im-

* See Potter's *Archæologia Græca*, c. 26., on "Laws concerning Punishments."

prisonment, and the name obviously does not imply it. Thus far, then, M. CLAVIER's case is very clear: but we do not see why, instead of utterly discarding the story of Plutarch, we may not reconcile the difference, by presuming Miltiades to have attempted the exercise of some right to which he was not intitled, and consequently to have been sued by the process of ἐνδειξις.* What, in such a case, would be the result is not so certain, but we see no reason for supposing that imprisonment would then have been unlawful. The silence of Herodotus is undoubtedly a negative kind of testimony, but there it ends: had he been less brief, his authority would be beyond all competition superior to that of a writer of the Augustan age, or another still more modern.

The second point, to which we proposed to lead our readers, is the treaty said to have been concluded with the King of Persia, by which he recognized the freedom of the Ionian cities on the coast of Asia Minor; engaging to withdraw his forces from them to the distance of a day's march for cavalry, and not to send vessels of war between the Cyprean rocks and the Chelidonian islands.

The difficulty of assigning an epoch for this treaty has drawn its existence into doubt; and Mr. Mitford, for this and some other reasons, partakes of such hesitation. We think, nevertheless, with M. CLAVIER, that the fact of its existence is rather firmly established. Plutarch cites it, and states the place where he found it; and Demosthenes, who is a stronger evidence, also refers to it. Against this testimony, however, the authority of Theopompus (whose works are not now extant, but of which some fragments are preserved in other writers) has been adduced; and it seems that he did not deny that such a treaty was to be found, but suspected that it was a forged document. Callisthenes, an author of whom we know as little, tells a similar story. It should be observed that both these writers appear to have been partizans of Philip, and inimical to the glories of the Athenians.

If, then, these objectors are considered as of little weight, there remain only the chronological difficulties, which M. CLAVIER surmounts in the following manner. The treaty is said to have been contracted by Callias, the second of that name. We read in Plutarch that Cimon defeated the Persian fleet in the Eurymedon, and subsequently their land forces on its banks, *anno* 470 A.C. The Persians, dismayed at their loss, are said to have sued for peace; and,

* Potter's *Archæologia Græca*, c. 23., in voce ἐνδειξις.
allowing

allowing that it might not have been signed until the succeeding year, we have the date of 469 A. C. for the treaty under remark.

The circumstances as related by Diodorus differ greatly from this statement. According to that writer, the Persians did not sue for peace after the affair at the Eurymedon, but after another victory gained by Cimon as late as 450 A. C.; and, if this relation were true, it would effectually exclude Callias from any share in the transaction. This person must, from the office which he then held, have been thirty years of age at the battle of Marathon; (A. C. 490.) and, if the statement of Diodorus be correct, he would consequently have been ninety years of age when he undertook a journey to Susa as an ambassador; an event probably without example in diplomacy, if we except the case of the first Portuguese ambassador to the newly discovered Prester John.

Diodorus, therefore, and those who have drawn their chronology from him, are wrong if Callias had a share in the business; and M. CLAVIER attributes their error, not unsatisfactorily, to the faultiness of the æra to which they have ascribed the death of Xerxes, and the succession of Artaxerxes Longimanus, with whom this treaty is said to have been concluded.

We have no precise epoch for these events: but, according to Thucydides, Themistocles went over to Artaxerxes very soon after the commencement of his reign; and in his passage he fell in with the Athenian squadron besieging Naxos. Now Naxos was taken about 472 A. C.; and if we suppose that Artaxerxes came to the throne about the commencement of the same year, or a little earlier, we obtain a tolerably accurate date for the death of Xerxes. Diodorus tells us that Xerxes died in the fourth year of the seventy-eighth Olympiad, which gives 462 A. C.; and that he and not Artaxerxes received Themistocles. It is not probable, however, that any person will place the authority of Diodorus in competition with that of Thucydides; because not only the ages in which they respectively wrote, but the character of the historians, forbid any such comparison. Supposing, then, the date of the death of Xerxes to be tolerably ascertained from Thucydides, let us apply it to the subject under consideration.

The peace, it is allowed, was concluded with Artaxerxes Longimanus after a battle by sea and land, in which Cimon was victorious: but if, following Diodorus, we place the death of Xerxes 462 A. C. (instead of 472 A. C., as the other authorities lead us to infer,) the treaty could not have

been the consequence of the battle at the Eurymedon, which occurred in 470 A. C. We read in the antient historians of the successes of Cimon in Cyprus, 450 A. C., and these victories are assigned by Diodorus as the causes of the treaty: but, if they were, it becomes necessary for us also to extend the life of Cimbn, who died while besieging Citium in Cyprus, to the time assigned by Diodorus for the reign of Longimanus.

The system of Diodorus would, therefore, lead to a confusion in chronology, from which we are altogether relieved by following Thucydides, and those who have drawn from his relation. As to the actual existence of any such treaty, we conceive the chronological difficulties to be the greatest against its reception; and, if they are removed, which M. CLAVIER seems to have effected, the others are of minor importance.

Mr. Mitford assigns other reasons for withholding his assent, on which we cannot now enter: but among them we may notice the inference which he draws from Thucydides, that the Ionian cities in Asia Minor never ceased to be subject to the King of Persia. (Thucydid. lib. viii. c. 5. v. 6.) We cannot go this length with our countryman: but, in opposition to M. CLAVIER, we do think that the passage quoted plainly proves that the cities on that coast had paid tribute to the Persians, at some intermediate period between the before-mentioned treaty and this æra of the Peloponnesian war: because otherwise how should Tissaphernes be *indebted* to his master for the amount of any dues to be thence exacted? A subsequent infraction of a treaty, however, does not prove that it never existed. — It is time for us to attend to other subjects.

Memoir on the Manner in which the Temples of the Greeks and Romans were lighted. By M. QUATREMÈRE DE QUINCY. — This learned antiquarian and architectural disquisition would easily occupy a modern English quarto volume; nay, "*scriptus et in tergo*" too, of such as appear in our degenerate times: — but our neighbours are wisely satisfied with smaller types, and more reasonable bulk and prices, when they wish to inform the public of the result of their literary researches. Circumstanced as we are, we can merely extract the objects of inquiry which the author proposes to himself, and the mode in which he designs to examine them; leaving it to those who are interested in the question to ascertain, from the work at large, the truth of the opinions expressed.

The

The writer's intention is, — 1. To collect into one point of view the different heads of discussion of which the subject is susceptible; and to explain all that is known respecting it, as elementary to that which remains to be discovered. 2. To remedy our want of precise notions on this point, where such are unattainable, by a detailed analysis of the temples of which the ruins are now extant, by an examination of the imperious and local necessities which prescribe rules to some of these edifices; and by the results which may be drawn from the different peculiarities, remarkable in the architectural disposition of many temples. 3. To supply from the authority of various writers, and the incontestible facts which they have transmitted, the omissions of Vitruvius, on a part of the construction of these buildings. 4. To deduce, as a necessary result from the foregoing considerations, and from many others derived from civil and religious history, the necessary consequence that the interior of such temples did receive light from without, and in various modes.

Such is the plan of the author of this memoir; and he enters on the execution of it, conscious of the difficulty to be encountered in supporting opinions so strongly at variance with those which have been usually received, but still undismayed at contesting the question against such numerous authorities of travellers and antiquaries, whose general unanimity on this head he attributes more to pre-conceived opinions, than to the conviction arising from close investigation.

Inquiries and Observations respecting the Commerce and the Luxury of the Romans, and their Commercial and Sumptuary Laws. By M. DE PASTORET. First memoir: treating of the first Six Ages of Rome. — This author complains that, while we have political histories of Rome, we are destitute of what may be termed the moral annals of that city. These, doubtless, are to be sought chiefly in the laws and institutions which, by condemning various habits and actions, prove their existence and undue influence. Some such compilations are to be found: but, while they describe manners, splendor, and luxury, or give a catalogue of vices, they do not trace them in their origin, nor follow them through the stages of their increase; they do not, in short, treat of them historically and philosophically, but loosely, incidentally, and without reference to the chronology of civilization, of manners, and of wants multiplied by wealth, ease, and imagination.

Such appear to us to be the general reasons that have induced M. DE PASTORET to enter on his task, in order to supply the deficiency of which he complains. As far as they regard modern writers, these observations may be nearly ex-

altogether true; and, perhaps, they may be extended to history generally, which is universally more occupied with political events than others, and leaves the gradual changes in the manners of a people to be collected, in a great measure, by the reader from the succession of scenes which it describes. Hence arises that very great difference in the advantages which various persons, especially those of early age, derive from studies of this description, according as they exercise more or less a habit of thought in the philosophical investigation of the moral causes which produce political results. It cannot, perhaps, be said with equal justice of the antients, for they have transmitted to us some works exclusively descriptive of the existing habits of their own countrymen: but they paint the manners only of some insulated period, without much reference to the past or the future; the blank intervals between which can only be supplied by drawing our information with care and attention from history, generally so called.

In his present inquiry, it is clearly the object of M. DE PASTORET to combine all such authorities, and deduce from them, as far as he is able, a methodical arrangement and historical survey of the manners of the Romans, in all those arts which have a natural tendency to produce luxury and magnificence. His first memoir, embracing the epoch mentioned above, might be perhaps more justly styled an account of the early simplicity of the Romans, and their gradual progress in refinement, than observations on their commerce and luxury; because, although towards the close of it much comparative luxury prevailed with reference to earlier periods, yet the word is scarcely applicable in its absolute sense.

M. DE PASTORET supposes the æra of the first silver coinage at Rome to be about five years before the first Punic war, or about A.C. 269. A.U.C. 484. This is the period very usually assigned, but is not, we conceive, altogether so certain as to allow us to set it down in a conclusive manner. Silver coins, but from a foreign mint, were in use at Rome at a much earlier time, as we find from Livy, lib. viii. c. 11. This historian, indeed, does not say that they were foreign, but the implication is fair, and almost necessary, from other parts of history. The other period, at which some persons place the first silver coinage among the Romans, is later by more than half a century than that of A. C. 269; and the compiler of the epitome of the lost books of Livy has adhered to this latter opinion, probably following Pliny. The extraordinary value of silver, which is proved by the circumstance that one hundred *denarii*, each of the value of ten *asses*, was
coined

coined from one pound of it, fully establishes the extreme scarcity of the article; and this might again be adduced as an argument for the later period of its introduction. The early comparative rate of gold and silver is said to have been tenfold in favour of the former.

In speaking on the subject of the interest of money, and the interest of one per cent. allowed by the 12 tables, the author corrects *Montesquieu* *, who appears to have been ignorant of such a law: but M. DE P. would have made the case clearer, had he mentioned that this interest was monthly, and consequently amounting to what we should call 12 per cent. The expression of Pliny †, *duodenis assibus debere*, therefore, exactly describes this legal interest. The difficulty appears to be this:—by the *lex Duilia Mænia*, A. U. C. 396, interest was limited to one per cent.; and this limitation certainly does appear to be precisely the same with the *usura centesima* prescribed by the 12 tables. Where, then, was the necessity for a new enactment merely to enforce one that was already in existence? It was certainly a bold measure in *Montesquieu* to impeach the historical accuracy of Tacitus ‡: but the reasons which induced him to hesitate are tolerably clear. *Brotier* observes that it is highly improbable that the 12 tables should have been silent on such a subject §: it is so, more particularly if we bear in mind that the state of usury was the most frequent cause of civil dissension, when they were promulgated. The most natural mode of solving the difficulty is to suppose that there were provisions for the better security of the debtor in the second act, which were not to be found in the first; as the names applied to the amount of interest do not of themselves seem to imply any distinction.

Second Memoir on the above Subject.—The same discussion is pursued in this paper, through that interesting period of Roman history which is comprised in the seventh and the early part of the eighth century from its foundation:—a period during which the extensive conquests of Rome, while they added to her splendor, multiplied her wants, and, together with the elegant arts, introduced that insatiable craving after novelty and expensive pleasures, which are so generally the concomitants of their cultivation. Sallust and Paternulus conceive that the destruction of Carthage gave the first rise to Roman luxury: but it appears rather to have added a sudden impetus to that which had for some years been pro-

* *Esprit des Loix*, lib. xxii. c. 22.

† Vide *Taciti Annales*, lib. vi. c. 16.

§ Ibid. et notam in loco, edit. Brotier.

† Ep. x. 62.

gressive. Sumptuary and censorial edicts did not cease: but history has so completely established their inefficacy, that modern nations seem quietly to have acquiesced in this decision; and either to have left the march of events to proceed in an unrestricted course, or to have sought by heavy imposts to confine those articles of luxury to the few, which add only to the superfluous embellishment and not to the real comforts of mankind.

Memoir on the Mill-stones used by the Antients and by the Moderns. By M. MONGEZ. — This memoir, which terminates the volume, owes its origin to the discovery of some antient mill-stones near Abbeville, and close to a Roman station. After a description of their form and material, the writer offers some observations on the materials usually employed for this purpose by moderns as well as antients. The latter is a point which has not been satisfactorily illustrated. We need scarcely add that the disquisition is rather mineralogical than literary, in a confined acceptation.

ART. III. *Galerie Morale et Politique, &c.*; i.e. A Moral and Political Gallery. By the Count DE SÉGUIER. 8vo. pp. 436. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 10s.

THIS book is adapted to fill up in French society the place which is occasionally occupied among ourselves by an *Adventurer*, a *Lounger*, or a *Looker-on*. It contains thirty-three short papers, or numbers, on moral topics, written in a graceful and amusing style, and well adapted to lady-readers. The first paper is introductory, the second treats on vanity, and the third asks a series of questions. Then follow essays on *Fashion*, *Friendship*, *Disputes*, *Goodness*, *Illusion*, *Love*, and *Fortune*. We will translate the eleventh, which is superscribed *Soul and Conscience*.

Men often talk of conscience, but they should rather talk of consciences: for they are of all sorts and sizes, of all qualities and seasons. There are severe, mild, proud, convenient, clear-sighted; blind, loose, strait, imperious, and silent consciences; they vary with times, places, laws, interests, circumstances, and parties; and they are so little alike that we should scarcely regard them as of the same family, though they bear the same name. It would be curious to listen to the different languages, in which a conscience addresses the soul of a conqueror, of a labourer, of a merchant, of an advocate, of a fashionable woman, of a politician, of a poet, of a rich man in power, and of a poor man in exile. The conscience of a stammering child, of an inflammable young man, of a mature reasoner, or of a half-extinguished grey-beard, would supply

supply dialogues interesting for their variety of tone, form, and color.

Let us first examine the conscience as it should be, as sages paint it, and such as would improve the actions of mankind. The inquiry will not be useless; for this conscience, which meets the idea of philosophy, is the true one; and, if we find it occasionally slumbering, or disfigured by passion, ignorance, false doctrine, or bad laws, it has an elasticity which will restore its uprightness, and enable it to become what is needful to secure the happiness of the just and good man, and the punishment of the wicked.

Conscience is a judge placed within us; it holds a torch to the soul, which enables it to distinguish good from evil, virtue from vice, and truth from error. The object of wisdom is the happiness of the mind; which can only be attained by keeping it in a state of justice, peace, and tranquillity, in the midst of the agitations of the world and the storms of life. To arrive at this happy state, the mind must unrelentingly follow the path of truth and virtue. The passions beckon it aside, but conscience seeks to draw it back to the road, whenever it is swerving. — Often does passion call too loud, and conscience whisper too softly and too late. Such is the fate of man. His reason can but counsel, while his vices drag him violently along. The one has only lessons and remedies to suggest; the others offer pleasures and conceal dangers. This is not the apology but the cause of our errors. Accordingly, no mortal can wholly escape; and the man who attains the proper end of his being is not so much he who excels in wisdom, as he who falls short in absurdity. No one follows constantly and without deviation the true path: but those are the happiest who the least frequently stray.

How shall we account for these contradictions? Each of us covets happiness; and each of us carries within him that ray of divine light which might guide, that counsellor which might advise, that judge which might threaten him. Yet most men are blind to this light, deaf to these counsels, fearless of this judge, and, turning their backs on the felicity which they covet, plunge into a misery which they dread.

I was buried in these reflections, saying to myself, like Seneca to Serenus, "When I examine my soul I can detect some obvious faults, others more concealed, some which are habitual, others which only return at intervals; and these are the most dangerous, because we are off our guard; they resemble rifle-men, who lurk in ambush for the moment of attack, and do not assail, like the warrior, an armed enemy." All at once, my good genius appeared to me, and repeated the solemn sentence "Know thyself." He touched my eyes with his hand, which seemed radiant with a starry lustre, and from that moment I began to discern within me what I am about to describe.

I thought that I was transported into an empire of which all the inhabitants were lively and sensible, but irritable, and all occupied with restless activity, either in seeking pleasure or avoiding pain. These were their only gods, their only idols. The country, like many others, was agreeable enough to the eye, and was inter-

intersected with many canals which fertilized its departments ; it enjoyed a warm temperature, but rather too various, and exposed to frequent tempests which seemed to threaten destruction. The manners of the nation are not easily painted ; they were neither quite pure nor quite indecorous, but much variety and uncertainty prevailed in them. Noble thoughts, impetuous desires, a taste for pleasure, a love of glory, humanity, pride, benevolence, and anger, were alternately disputing for predominance ; and they the more frequently excited great troubles, because in this singular country there was an absolute community of goods. No private property was known ; and, as every thing was to take place at the expence of the mass, so no actions were allowed but by common agreement, and in virtue of the general will.

Five principal persons, who alone had a liberty of intercourse with foreign countries, exercised the greatest influence over this general will. They were called *Senses*, and seemed to command imperiously. They often acted in concert with some great lords called *Vices*, and some ladies called *Passions*, who listened to their report, and frequently took violent resolutions. Among these *Passions* were many different characters, some tall, noble, proud, and disposed to prompt a lofty behaviour ; others, low, vulgar, sneaking, and willing to perform dirty actions.

At the first glance I inferred, and with some pain, that this region was governed according to republican forms, and that it must always be exposed to the tumults of faction and the troubles of anarchy ; but I was told by one of the principal and most awful of the *Passions*, that the state is monarchic ; and that it is ruled by a genius who descended from Heaven, being condemned by the Divine will to pass a great number of years, sometimes seventy, shut up in this country, in order to govern beings of an inferior nature to his own ; great rewards or great punishments awaiting him, accordingly as he exercises his sway well or ill, in the difficult circumstances in which he is placed.

"Difficult?" said I to the angelic female who was addressing me, "surely a Genius so superior to those whom he has to command can never find any difficulty in executing his will : his subjects cannot be blind enough to compare themselves with him, nor mad enough to resist him : his laws cannot but be regarded as oracles, and he can have for subjects only slaves or adorers."—"You are strangely mistaken," replied my conductress. "This Genius, whose name is *Soul*, has not so easy a task as you imagine. The same decree of Heaven, which sent him hither, compels him to sympathize with all of us : he is closely joined to our nature, suffers our pains, and enjoys our pleasures ; he is obliged to receive his information from the *Senses*, and at least to listen to the oratory of the *Passions*. He may then indeed retire, deliberate, and decide and act as he pleases. Come and see a regular sitting : we have all a right of access."

This information increased my surprise ; and I followed my guide in silence, and not without some difficulty, because certain coarse people were inclined to stop me in a place called

Diaphragma.

Diaphragm, assuring me that the sovereign dwelt there. I even saw some others, but whom I considered as crazy, who said to me, "You are losing your walk, *Soul* does not exist any where."

'A very tender and romantic *Passion* then took hold of my hand, and advised me to go to a spot which she pointed out, and called *Heart*; and in fact I saw a prodigious number of people there, going out and in, so that I took it for the centre of public activity, and was proceeding accordingly: but my original guide gave other directions, and I obeyed.

'We had now to climb a more elevated region, to which roads and canals led from all parts and provinces of the empire. I never saw a place so well lighted, in which it was so difficult to distinguish objects: but it was precisely the multiplicity of lights which embarrassed me: there were some of all sorts, great, small, plain, and coloured: there were fierce fires, will-with-the-wisps, soft gleams, flashy lightnings, hovering flames; and beside all these an innumerable assemblage of *Desires* and *Passions*, holding and agitating mirrors and prisms in every possible direction, so as to vary at each instant the hue and shape of every ray. Confused with this versatile illumination, I could not distinguish the figure of *Soul* sufficiently to describe him to you; I merely discerned a luminous space, which had nothing in common with the transitory spectacle.

'After some length of trouble and attention, my guide said that her own name was *Love of Wisdom*; and that I might see, close beside the throne of *Soul*, two tall females, the one having a noble and severe appearance, with a torch in her hand; the other naked, but holding a small veiled mirror. "These," said she, "are *Reason* and *Truth*, and *Soul* esteems and fears them. *Virtue* sits yonder apart, with a contented look." — "But who is that female," said I, "whose eyes roll so tenderly, whose lips so agreeably, and who seems to talk very familiarly to the sovereign? I should like to embrace her." — "Beware," said my Mentor, "that is *Voluptuousness*: you may admire the roses in her hair, and the grace in her steps: but beware of her perfidy, look at her feet." I did so, and saw a cavern, whence arose moans, into which she was continually precipitating those who loitered in her lap. I also saw, near the sovereign, *Anger*, with blood-shot eyes; *Envy*, pale-faced, and holding a cup of venom which leaked upon herself; while *Ambition*, in complete armour, stalked up to the throne; and at first I admired his gait, until I saw blood on his garment. *Avarice* seemed to me ridiculous and disgusting; she was sitting on gold, drest in rags.

'At the foot of the throne, a woman was writing down all that she could hear: but a little old man, with a scythe, was hacking the leaves in pieces: their names were *Memory* and *Time*. I was somewhat consoled for all that I had seen which was disagreeable, by observing *Strength* supporting *Goodness*; *Justice* threatening *Vice* and introducing *Virtue*; *Moderation* checking

checking a car which the *Desires* were driving; and *Modesty* in a corner attiring *Genius*.

My attention, however, was chiefly attracted by a tall woman in the robes of magistracy; her physiognomy was at once mild and severe; and every body bowed respectfully before her, except some factious persons who tried in vain to frighten her. She seemed no more accessible to those who sought to corrupt or to seduce her, than to those who flattered her; she listened impartially to all applications, and to all complaints. Before her, and in view, was a starry crown of jewels; behind her, a hideous being, shaking a whip armed with steel points. This woman was always speaking to the throne; and no decision seemed to be taken without her being consulted, or at least heard.

"You have now seen," said my guide, "the chief judge of the country, whose name is *Conscience*. Our sovereign stands in awe of her, and is obliged to follow her dictates or to shrink from her reproofs. If at times they come to an open breach, the *Passions* have no bridle, the *Vices* have no bounds, *Soul* is hurled from his throne, the state becomes a prey to great disorders, and all would be lost were it not for that ugly black man, whose whip is armed with points, whose name is *Repentance*, and who sometimes ventures to scourge the sovereign himself into better conduct. He is, indeed, often checked in this effort by one whom you see yonder repeating the same action: her name is *Habit*: indifferent to good or evil, she strengthens alike *Vice* or *Virtue*: she is apt to stifle the voice of *Conscience*, and then there is little hope of reformation. You now know the country, the inhabitants, the court, the sovereign, and the council: approach and listen, there is a stir in the palace, and the sovereign is probably about to make some great decision."

Presently, I heard *Ambition* speechifying, and pressing *Soul* to consent to an enterprise which he asserted to be expedient for the good of the state: while the voice of *Self-Love* was joined to that of *Ambition*. *Pride* was sure that no obstacles intervened which were to be apprehended: *Anger* related the aggressions of the party to be attacked: *Envy* sneered at his insignificance; and *Avarice* whispered how much was to be gained by his spoil. The sovereign appeared to me to be listening with complacency to these persons; at least so I judged from the increasing confidence of the assailants; when *Moderation* and *Prudence* stepped forwards to paint the dangers of the proposed enterprise. Presently, *Justice* and *Reason* rose gravely at once, and said, "The action you propose is wrong, and therefore it cannot be useful." *Conscience* now drew near to the throne, and said, "Hesitate no longer; you ought to follow on all occasions the advice of *Justice* and *Reason*; cease to lend an ear to those perfidious *Passions*; and remember the maxim of Confucius, that to listen to the wicked is a commencement of wickedness." At these words, I thought that the light, which veiled the figure of *Soul*, became tinged with a blush

of

of red, and *Ambition* received an intimation to talk no more of his project.

‘I afterward saw *Voluptuousness* approach the throne, with an offering of flowers and fruits: but, as she was accompanied by *Hymen* and by *Reason*, *Conscience* smiled, and *Soul* accepted her gifts. Soon, however, I perceived *Voluptuousness* make another attempt at audience, accompanied by *Vice*, by *Loose Desire*, by *Drunkenness*, and by other figures drest as Bacchanals: she held a basket which *Mystery* had tied down. *Soul* seemed on the point of conceding a second audience: but *Virtue* interfered, and pushed aside the basket; *Pudor* gave a shriek and fainted; and *Conscience* pointed to *Remorse* and said, “Remember that he dissipates every shade which *Mystery* can form.” At his voice *Pudor* recovered, and *Voluptuousness* was drily commanded to withdraw.

‘Delighted with what I had been seeing, I said to the noble *Passion* who was guiding me, “Well, you find that the government of this country does not involve so many difficulties as you presumed. I grant that there are dangerous *Passions* and seducing *Vices*: but *Soul* has not to apprehend any very absurd decision, or any inexpressible injury, while shielded by the counsels of *Reason* and *Justice*, or the precautions of *Moderation* and *Pudor*.” — “You shout before you are out of the wood,” retorted my guide; “here comes a little magician, who, if I mistake not, will occasion some trouble at head-quarters.” — “How, have you magicians in this country?” I inquired. — “Yes,” answered my companion, “there are two. The one is called *Imagination*; she is well-disposed, animates every thing, and adorns every thing; and, if not always on good terms with *Reason*, yet her very freaks are forgiven her for the amusement which they bestow. The world would be dull without her, and even *Truth* sometimes permits her to undertake the cares of the toilette. But her sister, who is called *Folly*, is the most dangerous witch in existence. She can make herself invisible, steals in every where, and manages to govern people who are not in the least aware of her presence. She is my personal enemy; and often in my name, and in my shape, she plays her most malicious pranks. She assumes every form, disguises every thing, stuns *Reason*, cheats *Conscience*, and intoxicates *Soul*. I alone know her, and pursue her, but too often without success; she is approaching, I will endeavour to render her visible to your eyes.”

‘I looked whither I was directed, and saw a little woman, with a *marote** in her hand, a mask on her face, and a patchwork-garment hung with little bells, which made a tinkling that nobody seemed to heed but myself. As she passed through the croud, she touched every one whom she met with her *marote*; and at once the figure altered to my view. *Ambition* assumed the

* The French word *marote* is meant to describe a doll with two faces, which is fixed on a skewer. Momus was represented among the antients with this child's toy in his hand. *Rev.*

appearance of *Glory*; *Vice*, that of *Virtue*; *Voluptuousness*, that of *Happiness*; *Revenge*, that of *Justice*; *Quackery*, that of *Merit*; *Prodigality*, that of *Beneficence*; *Temerity*, that of *Courage*; *Treachery*, that of *Policy*; *Meanness*, that of *Prudence*; and *Hypocrisy*, that of *Piety*. From this moment every thing seemed in disorder about the throne. All the *Vices* and all the *Passions* began a stunning clamor, and *Soul* seemed no longer to know one voice from another. *False Glory* spread before him her hopes, *Voluptuousness* excited his desires, *Revenge* promised him security, *Treachery* offered him a key to the treasury of *Prudence*, and *Hypocrisy*, turning his steps toward Hell, showed him Heaven through a reflecting telescope. The voices of *Justice* and *Reason* were overpowered by the mad outcry; *Virtue* and *Truth* were pushed aside by *Calumny* and *Ridicule*; *Conscience* was lulled asleep in the arms of *Effeminacy* and *Sophistry*, but would now and then have uttered a groan, had not *Flattery* stood by, with her tinkling censer, to intercept the sound and its source. This fair-faced enemy of kings, mimicking the voice of *Public Opinion*, urged *Soul* to obey what she called the wishes of the empire: she then pushed him into the arms of the *Pleasures*, the *Vices*, and the *Passions*, who surrounded him, and led him off in triumph.

'How shall I describe to you the scene which ensued? From this moment, disorder reigned every where. The state was a prey to anarchy and convulsion: its forces withered, its canals grew dry, and delirious fevers spread to the borders of the empire.

'My Mentor looked down, with a face of gloom. "Where is your courage?" said I; "why do you not try at least to rescue the sovereign, and to save the empire?" — "I shall attempt it," said she, touching *Truth* on the shoulder. This powerful being now began to unveil her mirror, and to fling its brightness on the face of *Conscience*, who awoke, and shrieked to *Repentance*. He came, he seized *Soul* in the midst of his corrupt companions, applied without hesitation his formidable scourge, and forcibly carried him back to his throne. *Folly* took flight, and every thing resumed its natural appearance and its customary order.'

Our readers will probably agree with us that this allegory has some novelty and some ingenuity, but that it is full of repetitions and pleonasm, that it is stretched out to the extreme limits of fair proportion, and that a multiplication of synonyms distends every sentence. The same character applies to almost all the essays in the book, in which is betrayed an idle want of condensation, although the garrulity is not unpleasant.

The other topics are, *Time*, *Habit*, *Age*, *Folly*, *Moderation*, *Misfortune*, *Ennui*, *Gaiety*, *Fear*, *Drunkenness*, *Reason*, *Abuse of Terms*, *Party-Spirit*, *The Seven at Supper*, *Adversity*, *Elections*, *Spirit of the Age*, *Good Sense*, *Butterflies*, *Mountains*, *Love of Novelty*, and *Self-Restraint*. All these matters are treated with elegance, and in a manner which exhibits the

the author as friendly to that liberal and Horatian morality, which places in moderation the perfection of opinion; in a middle course, the perfection of conduct; and which especially selects for its motto, *Ne quid nimis*.

ART. IV. *Histoire de l'Esprit Revolutionnaire des Nobles en France, &c.; i. e. A History of the Revolutionary Spirit of the French Nobility, under the Sixty-eight Kings of the Monarchy.* 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 19s.

WE have not here an impartial appreciation of the historic conduct of the French nobility, but a party-work; abounding indeed with specific facts, and drawn up in order to bring the French nobility into disrepute. It aims at sowing mistrust between the King's friends and the nobility, by detailing all those incidents of the feudal ages in which the nobility were in arms against the crown, or against each other, and were alternately the victims and the promoters of confiscation. It also endeavours to effect a similar jealousy between the people and the nobility, by detailing all those instances in which the former have been plundered and oppressed in large masses, for the exclusive advantage of the landed aristocracy. The book, therefore, resembles in its spirit those forgotten *Crimes of the Popes, Moral and Political Acts of the Kings and Queens of Great Britain, &c.*, with which, in the early days of the Revolution, the multitude was frequently entertained. We must own, however, that the method of writing these histories has been improved by the present author; that he consults the best documents for his facts; that he relates them with condensation and vivacity; and that he would deserve high praise as an epitomizer of the annals of faction in France, if the occasional want of equity did not forbid unqualified approbation. The shafts of satire interspersed are chiefly directed against the ultra-royalists; whom he endeavours to run down, by producing in the reader's mind an indirect assimilation of them with the partizans of the Dukes of Guise, with the heroes of the Ligue, and with the proscribers of Saint Bartholomew. All this must form, in France, very stimulant reading: but the details of French revolutions, especially at remote periods, are not sufficiently interesting here to procure for the work any very extensive popularity. It is more likely to serve as a model than as a manual; and it may lead some democratic writer among ourselves to attempt a similar caricature of

those features in the natural behaviour of a high aristocracy, which can best be rendered odious to the commonalty.

The first volume is divided into four books; of which one pursues the history of the French nobility down to the exclusion of the Merovingian dynasty; a second continues it to the dismissal of the Carlovingian dynasty; a third carries forwards the narrative to the death of Charles the Fair; and the fourth to the battle of Agincourt.

We will extract a passage of international transaction, in order that the turn and degree of misrepresentation adopted in this work may the better be felt and understood.

'The eloquence of *Robert d'Artois* determined this law-suit to the advantage of the branch of *Valois*. Philip VI., called *the Fortunate*, was crowned King of France. He did well to accept this surname; for there was much of luck in his triumph. It might justly be feared that he would not have overcome the bad intentions of the nobility, and the gold of England. Moreover, the new king might expect to incur some inconvenience from the anger of his English competitor, Edward. This prince in fact retained so bitter a spite after his political defeat, that he thereupon began those long and bloody quarrels between the French and the English nations, which have at length accustomed them not to be able to bear to live together as good neighbours in any of the four quarters of the world.

'This antipathy soon struck root in France, but more in the centre than at the circumference of the empire. National hatred acts most on the labourer and the artizan: least on the agents of foreign commerce. The coasts, therefore, participated little in the feeling; and Guyenne, Bretany, Normandy, and Provence, remained distinguished by their anglomania. The nobility of these provinces, who made a political system of this base predilection, particularly regretted the not having obtained Prince Edward for their king; and these regrets became the basis of a faction, which the English kept alive for a long time.

'Although the gentlemen of France had the dexterity to conduct themselves with those precautions which traitors usually observe while they are not the strongest, Philip VI. was well aware of the seditious movements which they instigated in concert with the English administration. Before the battle of Crecy, he was heard to say that perfidious men surrounded him; that the plan of the campaign was betrayed to the enemy; and that the English had been informed of the strength of his army, and of the very hour intended for the attack.

'Until then, the King had restricted himself to complain, but now he deemed it no longer safe to dissemble the proofs of treason. There are moments for justice of which policy must hasten the arrival. Without waiting to detect the greatest possible number of the conspirators, he beheaded several nobles.

'This royal severity was not blamed: nor would it have been reasonable to censure it, possessed as the King was of the exact
list

list of the pensioners of England. He owed this list to a discontented and vindictive English gentleman, named Salisbury, whose wife had been seduced and dishonoured by the English prince. Jealousy made him a traitor; and he came to France to unmask the secrets of his king. The list, however, did not contain the names of all the guilty: for Salisbury had copied it too rapidly, or had left omissions from personal partiality; and this deficiency prevented Philip from arresting many who afterward delivered up citadels and cities to the enemy. If the intelligence had been completer, he would no doubt have executed *Renaud*, who sold the fortress of Palencourt; and *Aiguillon*, who, without waiting for a breach, delivered up the keys of his citadel. The precautions of the monarch ought also to have been directed against *D'Eu*, who quietly let the English take possession of Caen; and the perfidy of the Chevalier *Godemar du Fay* ought not to have been spared, who, being intrusted with the defence of a ford over the river *Somme*, took to his heels, and abandoned an important post.' (Vol. i. p. 326.)

Volume II. is divided into two books, of which the one conducts the history to the assassination of Henry III., and the termination of the branch of *Valois*. The other surveys the history of the nobility under the *Bourbons*. Five chapters comprize the events of the late Revolution. The nobility are blamed for every thing, first for emigrating, and then for returning from emigration under *Bonaparte*. Surely, when he had restored the church of France, and revived the distinctions of rank, it was consistent with their principles to act under him.

As it must happen to every violent party-publication, this work has been attacked with great bitterness by several French journals; for instance, by the *Quotidienne*, the *Annales*, and the *Journal des Debats*: but it is written with an eloquence, a neatness, and a pithiness, which will enable it to withstand many storms of hostility; and it is likely to become permanently acceptable to those whom it can please, and to be considered as one of the elementary books of the democratic faction.

ART. V. *Précis des Evénemens Militaires, &c.; i. e. A Summary of Military Events, or Historical Essays on the Campaigns from 1799 to 1814, with Maps and Plans.* By Count MATTHEW DUMAS, Lieutenant-General in the Royal Army. Vols. V. and VI. 8vo. With a Portfolio Atlas. Paris. 1817. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 1l. 18s. sewed.

IN some former numbers of the Monthly Review, we gave details of the first four volumes of the work of Count DUMAS*, as they appeared both in the original French and

* See Vols. xxx. p. 581.; xxxii. p. 317.; xxxiii. p. 310.; xxxvii. p. 495.

in an English translation. A considerable interval has elapsed since our last notice of it; and we therefore turn with a degree of pleasure similar to that which is experienced on beholding a friend whose society has been long withdrawn from us, to the continuation of this interesting history, the recent parts of which embrace a period when the science of generalship began to shine forth in its greatest splendor.

France, Frenchman, and Paris, are words which are seldom left to repose in silence by our friends across the Channel; and this national expression of the *amor patriæ*, by frequent repetitions of the names or attributes of the beloved objects, is found almost as constantly to accompany the pages of the publications of their authors, let the subject be what it may, as it is heard in the streets, on the highways, and in the chambers of Gallia. Our readers will not be surprized, therefore, when we state that Count M. DUMAS has not been forgetful of the lesson which he imbibed with his mother's milk; and that he perhaps drags into his narrative rather too often the superiority of his countrymen over every other nation in the world. Still, as an old song says,

“ *Every white will have its blacke,
And every sweete its sowre ;*”

and we must overlook this great fault of all French works, when we are called to contemplate the good qualities of the production before us.

In general, the French write on military subjects in as able a manner as they usually conduct themselves in the field; and the present work breathes throughout that soldier-like spirit and that obvious method of detail, which an historical composition, devoted almost exclusively to the relation of warlike events, ought to possess. We say *almost exclusively*, because several parts of Vols. V. and VI. contain opinions on the political occurrences which were so intimately connected with the campaign here described; on the propriety of which opinions we intend to give our judgment hereafter, as they occur in the pages of the work.

Great Britain had so conspicuous a share in the war that raged on the Continent during the period embraced in the present volumes, namely the year 1801, that English readers will find, on a perusal of these essays, several very singular documents about which they have hitherto been much in the dark. The writer has certainly treated England with considerable deference throughout his narrative: but, wherever the unfortunate question of maritime superiority occurs, he feels so acutely for his country, that, unable to check himself, he

he gives vent to his national ideas in a manner not very consonant with his declaration of unbiassed and equitable principles. The questions are, however, ably treated, and his observations deserve to be generally perused.

In composing the present section of his essays, the Count has had to combat a great difficulty, under which he has probably found himself much more uneasy than during any of the engagements in which he has fought and bled. We allude to the share which *Napoleon Bonaparte*, then First Consul of the French republic, necessarily bears in all the actions, both political and military, that occupy the pages of these volumes. A Lieutenant-General in the *Armée du Roi** cannot be supposed to be very anxious to commit himself by praising the conduct and capacities of this personage: but an historian must not forfeit a character for justice and fair dealing. Not forgetting this imperative duty, the Count, in the essays on the campaigns of 1801, has mingled much praise with many strictures on the measures of the First Consul; and his character is treated in such a manner, that the light and the heavy particles are in tolerably exact equipoise. It required no small exertion of talents, and in fact of self-command, to bring the matter to this issue; and the author deserves much credit for his discrimination and ability.

Before we enter into particular criticisms on these essays, we shall briefly advert to what the author has said in a note concerning a work of which we gave an account in a recent Appendix; but which, at the time when he wrote, was untranslated.† In speaking of the *Principles of Strategy* by the Archduke *Charles of Austria*, Count DUMAS makes use of the following expressions, which entirely coincide with the judgment delivered in our pages on the same subject:

‘After having studied this classic work, we cannot hesitate to avow the opinion which we have formed of its great importance, in fixing on a fundamental basis the art of war, and in detailing its known progress. In presuming to express such a judgment on the performance of a living author, placed as he is in so elevated a situation, we may reasonably fear that our contemporaries might accuse us of flattering the prince, or might suspect us of leaning

* Count M. DUMAS was also a General of Division in *Napoleon's* army, and decorated with a title in the *Grande Légion d'Honneur*.

† See Appendix to M. R., vol. lxxxvii., article *Principes de Stratégie*, or *Principles of Strategy*, &c., attributed to the pen of the Archduke *Charles*, and translated into French from the German under General *Jomini*.

too favourably towards him: but we trust that the impartiality, which we have religiously kept in these essays, will defend us from any unjust suspicions of this kind; and that the exposition of the motives of our praise will sufficiently check the reproaches of the most austere critics.

'It is with reason that we search, in the writings which the great captains of antient and modern times have left us, for the most profitable lessons. In whatever manner they have conveyed their recollections or their observations, — in their commentaries, as *Cæsar*, — in memoirs purely historical, as *Montecuculi*, — or in collections of maxims and various examples for all sorts of operations, as the great *Frederic* has done in his *Military Instructions* to his Generals, — we still find in these primary sources the true principles of the art. Men of genius who have commanded large armies, and who have conducted their wars according to their own ideas, and to the inspiration of their own talents, have alone been placed on that pinnacle from which can be observed the action of all the springs of this vast machine, and whence their results may be determined. We see by these precious monuments that, much as they have been enlightened by history or by the traditions of battles, and the practice of their great forerunners, yet they have equalled them only by forming themselves, and by their individual experience: almost all have made a noble avowal of this fact; each of them has created rules for his guidance according to his own innate genius, and has appropriated these maxims according to circumstances and the spirit of the age in which he flourished. It is only a short time ago, and in our own days, that we have sought to bring these various results into combination, in order to deduce from them rules that shall be always certain, and at all times applicable, — true axioms of the science of war.

'Of all the authors who have devoted themselves to this object, no one could have undertaken it with greater advantages than the generalissimo of the armies of the empire; and the illustrious author of the *Principles of Strategy* has seized the most favourable moment to fix them, and to make them remembered, viz. that of the termination of a war in which every thing was subjected to proof on the greatest scale; and of which the events, the successes, and the reverses, have exhausted all combinations, all possible chances, and, in a word, have reproduced to our observation the experience of all former ages.'

The Count then proceeds to lay before his readers the most striking passages of the Archduke's work, by a literal translation from the German: but in this attempt he has not succeeded so well as the officer whom General *Jomini* has since employed to clothe his Imperial Highness's production in the French language. The passages, nevertheless, are appropriately chosen, and agree well with the praise which the Count has deservedly bestowed on the royal author.

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He concludes by saying that, although the grand theory of generalship which the book contains is not new, as *Jomini* and *Bulow* had preceded the Archduke, (the first in his *Traité de Grande Tactique*, and the second in his *Système de Guerre*,) yet his Highness has given a more clear, logical, and decisive detail of the principles of this science than any other writer. The French commentator also praises the impartiality and accuracy with which the historical part of the work is written, and the intelligent manner in which the operations are described; finishing his eulogy by remarking that the author of the Principles of Strategy has not contented himself with examples purely hypothetical, but that the history, which he has given of his excellent campaign in 1796, serves as a text for the developement of the principles which he has established: since there is not an operation of any of the three acting forces, nor a movement of any of them, of which the design, the execution, and the result, are not discussed on the same principles.

We shall now resume the subject of the present criticism, from which we have been led away by finding so handsome a compliment paid to a performance which it fell to our lot to notice with pleasure, and to leave with regret.

In turning over the two volumes before us, we find some notes which ought to have been appended to the fourth volume, and we shall therefore commence with them, although they occupy a place at the end of the fifth part. They relate, in course, to circumstances which the preceding numbers have detailed at large: but, as they are interesting, we shall particularize a passage or two for the purpose of shewing that they are not idle additions, to swell the size of the present volumes. The first, referring to the battle of Marengo and its consequences, commences by stating that the action, both in its course and in its results, has had more influence over the different states of Europe, with respect to their destiny and their actual situation, than any other warlike event for the last three centuries; that is to say, from the battle of Pavia in 1525, to the year 1800. We shall not discuss this opinion: the matter is fresh in the recollection of the present generation, and there are perhaps many European states which will not so readily agree in this assertion of the author; we shall therefore pass to his account of the manner in which the fate of that day was decided. The Count attributes the fortunate turn of the action entirely to the charge made on the grenadiers of the enemy by General *Kellerman*, and cites that officer's account of the affair, together with the following

following extract from *Bonaparte's* relation, given a long time after his triumph :

“ On my arrival being known, the Austrians manoeuvred on *Alessandria* ; and, accumulated in this place at the moment in which I appeared before its walls, their column immediately began to deploy in front of the Bormida. I caused them to be attacked. Their artillery was superior in force to mine ; it staggered our young battalions : they lost ground, and the line was preserved only by two battalions of the guard and by the 45th demi-brigade : but I was waiting for the corps which were marching up *en échelon*. The division of *Desaix* arrived, and the whole line rallied ; *Desaix* formed his column of attack, and carried the village of *Marengo*, on which the centre of the enemy rested : but this great General was killed at the moment in which he decided an immortal victory.”

Thus we see that the present historian and the commander at *Marengo* have different notions on the subject of the events of that day : — which is in the right, we shall not presume to decide ; nor shall we follow the Count through his attempt to prove that to *Kellerman* alone the laurels were due : but we must coincide with him in the train of reasoning which he offers to prove that the fortunes of *Napoleon* were made on the field of that battle. *Bonaparte* saw that he had attained the supreme rank in the councils of the nation by a series of uncommon and fortunate events, and that this elevation would have a solid basis if he could but gain a decisive battle in person. The field of the Bormida presented itself ; he perceived the tide that led to glory, and took it at its flood : well, therefore, has the French historian remarked that from this day he was considered and treated in a totally different manner from that in which the powers of Europe had been accustomed to address the Directors of the Republic, or her victorious generals.

The second note, relating to the fourth volume of the essays, is on a subject totally French ; viz. the merits of *Latour d'Auvergne*, who was known by the surname of the *First Grenadier of France*. We are not disposed to combat the author's high flown praises of this brave man, who is compared to *Turenne*, *De Guesclin*, *Bayard*, and *Henri Quatre* : but we cannot refrain from transcribing an anecdote of him, which places his name in a higher light than even that of the first grenadier of the army of France. He had been taken prisoner, and confined in England : but, recovering his liberty, he returned to France, and found his country suffering under the horrors of the Revolution. He retired to *Passy* ; where he learned that the only son of one of his friends,

friends, and the prop of his old age, had been forced from his father's roof by the rigorous law of the conscription. He presented himself before the authorities, obtained their permission to replace his friend's child, and, sending home the young and newly made soldier, he quitted his property to join the army of the Rhine. *Bonaparte*, after his elevation to the consulship, having been informed of this instance of generous devotion, named *Latour D'Auvergne* First Grenadier of the Army, and sent him at the same time a sabre of honour.

Note the third is devoted to a discussion of the treaty of El-Arish, and contains an angry developement of the impropriety and want of faith with which the British government are taxed by the author, for refusing to acknowledge and sanction the convention which Sir Sydney Smith had formed with General *Kleber*.

The fourth note, consists of long observations on the character of *Kleber*, and on the old army of France; including a good military biographical article on that General, together with some reasonings as to the probable cause which had elevated the French army to such a pitch of fame as it enjoyed at that time.

In the fifth note we have a long dissertation respecting the enterprise against Cadiz by Admiral Lord Keith; and the author assigns as a motive for the various attacks which have been made on that port by the English, their wish to possess it as a central *dépôt* for their commerce and maritime operations. We suspect that the Count has pushed his notions on this head rather too far; and he might have contented himself with observing that the British nation undertook these expensive operations against Cadiz principally with the view of preventing the Spaniards, or his own countrymen, from reaping any benefit from the favourable position of this city: which commands, as it were, the commercial relations of the two great seas on the borders of which it is placed.

We now return to the body of the work, and shall consider its chapters as they follow each other. We open our campaign with the section which relates to the events that preceded the operations of the belligerent powers in the memorable wars of the year 1801.

The respective situations of the courts of Vienna and London, after the armistice of Alexandria and that of Parsdorf, the state of Italy and Germany at that epoch, the political measures of *Bonaparte*, and the conventions of *Hohenlinden* and *Castiglione*, occupy the first chapter: but, before

before we enter at large on our report, we must revert to what we formerly observed concerning the mixture of political and military matter in this work. We are perfectly aware that, in a performance of this nature, it would perhaps be impossible to avoid political observations altogether: yet we cannot help thinking that, in this publication, professedly military as it is, rather too great a share of diplomatic feelings and principles is intermingled in its text; and we could wish that the Count had been less diffuse and more discriminating in his choice of these cabinet-subjects. The negotiations which were carried on between Francis II., the British court, and *Bonaparte*, occupy a large section of the first chapter; and the offer of the Consul to establish a naval armistice with Great Britain, independently of the measures which he was taking to procure a separate peace with Austria, is discussed at length: after which, we have a detail of the situation of the armies of France at this period.

‘The French government redoubled its efforts to preserve the superiority of its arms; and a corps of 15,000 men, detached from the second army of reserve assembled at Dijon, penetrated into Switzerland under the command of General *Macdonald*: it was destined to fill the interval between the armies of Germany and Italy, and to act in concert, as circumstances required, with one or with the other. The army of Italy was reinforced, chiefly in cavalry and artillery: General *Masséna*, greatly fatigued with the labours of the foregoing campaigns, gave up the chief command to General *Brune*; and a great quantity of siege-equipment was made ready in the arsenal of Turin.’

Count D. proceeds at length to detail the farther increase of the French force, of which we shall merely relate that the corps of General *Moreau*, cantoned in Bavaria and Swabia, were put on the most complete footing; that the arsenals of Augsburg and Munich were filled with ordnance and stores; and that a newly formed army of French and Dutch troops, under General *Augereau*, consisting of about 25,000 men, were on the banks of the Maine, opposed to the corps of the Austrian General *Simbschön*: which army was the left of an immense line of demarcation, that, traversing Franconia, Bavaria, the Tyrol, the Vorarlberg, the Valteline, and Western Italy, rested at last on the frontiers of Tuscany. Thus, towards the end of the year 1800, the effective force which the French republic had actually in the field, fit for immediate operations, amounted to the aggregate number of 240,000 combatants; living entirely at the expence of the countries which they occupied, and raising constant contributions of money and provisions.

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The allies were so far equally ready to come to immediate action, that they had numerous bodies of men fit for instant service: but they wanted money; and the general wish of the Germanic nations being for peace, a suspension of arms took place.

Of the position of *Bonaparte* in this juncture, the author speaks as follows :

‘ It was not doubted, in any of the cabinets of Europe, that *Bonaparte* would make his dictatorship sure ; and they feared his talents not less than his spirit of domination, which he never took the least pains to conceal. The invasion of Tuscany, the change of the Swiss government, the order given to General *Moreau* to destroy the fortifications of three important places of safety, and the contributions imposed on the German states occupied by French armies, made it well known that he conducted his political relations in the same manner as his warlike actions; that he availed himself of successful negotiations as well as of the rights of victory; that he dared every thing which it was possible for him to undertake; and that he would establish, as just and well-founded pretensions, all the consequences and advantages which it was likely that he could draw from the new state of things.

England, her naval power, and the right of search, then occupy several pages; in which are detailed, among other matter, the seizure of the Danish vessels in the Straits of Gibraltar, and the consequences of that measure: but we shall not pursue the General through all his reasonings on this subject, which we consider as one of those that might as well have been left for the discussion of persons whose works are allotted entirely to political questions.

Chapter II. is devoted to an explanation of the state of England, Italy, and Germany, at the period in question, and concludes with an account of the negotiations at Luneville. The first conspiracy, usually termed *the Opera Plot*, against the life of the Chief Consul, is also related in this section: but the most interesting part of the chapter is that which is designed to explain the operations in Tuscany.

Terms having first been offered to the Austrian authorities in that fertile country, which it was out of their power to accept, General *Dupont* crossed the Appennines, and occupied Florence on the 15th of October; while General *Clement*, quitting Lucca, placed himself before Leghorn, and General *Moussier* threatened *Arezzo* *, into which the insurrectionary

* In this town, which is situated at the confluence of the rivers Arno and Chiana, 34 miles S. E. of Florence, a general rising of the people took place in 1799 against the French General *Macdonald*, on his retreat from Naples.

forces had thrown themselves, determined to defend it to the utmost. We can, however, spare room for only a slight extract on this subject. General Mounier commenced a brisk siege, and,

‘ After having cannonaded the citadel and town in various quarters, he ordered the gates of the place to be choaked up with fascines, which should be set on fire. General *Cara Saint-Cyr*, with some officers of engineers and of his staff, conducted this operation, under a shower of grape, grenades, and stones: the grenadiers succeeded in placing the fascines, and burned the gates: but, as they were covered with iron and well blocked up, it was found impossible to force them. This renovated the courage of the besieged, they sounded the tocsin, and, redoubling the fire from the ramparts, shewed that they were determined to sustain an assault, which the French troops, while preparing their scaling-ladders, loudly demanded; and which took place on the following morning at five o'clock, under the orders of Colonel *Gerard*, and of the *Chef de Battallion Lusignan*. A scene of the most horrid carnage now presented itself; the walls were escalated, the gates forced, and the unfortunate garrison pursued and massacred on the ramparts, on the batteries, in the streets, and in the houses which had been loop-holed, and from which they never ceased to fire during the whole time. Some escaped in the underground communications, and others took refuge in the citadel, where they solicited a capitulation: but they were forced to surrender at discretion, and the fortifications were razed to the ground.’

We shall pass over the remaining sections, which principally relate to the new positions occupied by the army of the Republic at the convention (or rather armistice) of *Hohenlinden*, following that of *Parsdorf*, and to the relative positions of the Germanic armies.

In the succeeding chapter, we come at once to the main point of the history; and, after having travelled through what the General terms his *exposé* of the state of Europe at the time, we find ourselves suddenly on the field of battle.

The armistice having been formally denounced, the time for its duration expiring, and the order having been given to the French commanders to commence hostilities on the 26th of November, the campaign was opened by the Gallo-Batavian troops, who occupied the left bank of the *Maine*, and whose head-quarters were at *Offenbach*. A trifling affair, however, happened on the 24th, between the Dutch troops who watched the *tete de pont* of *Aschaffenburg*, and the corps of the Austrian General *Albini*. The battle of *Bourg Eberach*, and the retreat of *Simbschön* on the *Pegnitz*, close this section; which is very interesting, and leads us clearly

clearly to the preparations for the important results that follow.

Moreau made a movement to discover the designs of the Archduke *John*, who passed the Inn, and began offensive operations. This movement was followed up by the affair of Ampfingen, in which the left wing of the French army was worsted. *Moreau* then continued his celebrated retreat on Hohenlinden; and a topographical view of the environs of this place accompanies the work, pointing out in the clearest manner the respective positions of the armies before the combat; which is also farther detailed in the text. The account of this eventful action, which is extremely well narrated, shews the author to be perfectly master of his subject, and to possess the most ample materials for his undertaking. The relation of the battle being too long for us to transcribe, we shall give merely a few paragraphs, to exemplify the style in which it is composed.

‘ Repeated discharges of grape, and of the musketry of the riflemen planted in the wood on the two sides of the way, only accelerated the motions of the French. Three battalions of Hungarian grenadiers, united in close column, filling the road, advanced to the charge. *Richepanse*, at this decisive juncture, turning to the soldiers who followed him, exclaimed; “Grenadiers of the forty-eighth, what say you of these men?” — “They are dead,” shouted they; and, crossing their bayonets, they rushed on the enemy. The shock was terrible; the Hungarians were overthrown; and, the impulse once given, the French column broke through all the masses which were successively opposed to them.’

An excellent eulogium on the modesty of *Moreau* after the action is given at the conclusion of the detail, which reflects as much merit on the author as it throws light on the character of that amiable General. The passage of the Inn, after the battle, is then related in an equally able manner; and the section is closed by a strategic view of the preceding operations, in which the faults committed by the Austrian General in Chief are clearly pointed out.

Leaving *Moreau* on the right bank of the Inn, we turn to the conduct of the army of the Grisons, in the Rhætian Alps *, under General *Macdonald*; who was primarily occupied in watching General *Hiller*, the defender of the Tyrol,

* This part of the Alpine range comprizes the country between the territories of the Grisons and Milan, to the sources of the Drave and Piave; giving rise to the Inn, the Adige, the Oglio, and the Adda rivers.

but who had changed his projected motions by order of *Bonaparte*, into a fresh attempt on Italy. We shall translate the reply which the First Consul gave to the chief of *Macdonald's* staff, who had been despatched to Paris for orders, and who had represented the extreme difficulty which would attend the passage of the Alps, especially with so weak a force as that which *Macdonald* had under his command.

"We will carry," he said, "and without fighting, this immense fortress of the Tyrol: we must manœuvre on their flanks, menace their last point of retreat, and they will immediately evacuate all the high vallies. I shall not change an iota of my dispositions. Return quickly, for I am about to break the armistice; tell *Macdonald* that an army can always pass, and in all seasons, wherever two men can place their feet. The army of the Grisons must, therefore, fifteen days after the commencement of hostilities, find itself at the sources of the Adda, of the Oglio, and of the Adige; and, arriving at Trent, form the left of the army of Italy, and manœuvre in concert with it on the rear of that of *M. de Bellegarde*. I shall send timely reinforcements where they are necessary: it is not on the numerical force of an army, but on the object, on the importance of the operation, that I calculate the orders which are to be executed."

A military map of the country, in which the difficult operation of passing this frozen and almost inaccessible portion of the Alps is traced, accompanies the description: but it is too small to give any other than a general notion of that territory. The deficiency, however, is compensated by the very minute manner in which the passes are described in the text; and a paragraph or two from this part of the work will not be uninteresting.

On leaving Tussis, which is about seven leagues from Coire*, at the confluence of the Albach and the eastern branch of the Rhine, the *Via Mala* presents itself, so called on account of the sharp and pointed rocks between which it is shut in. When proceeding along this route, the traveller is frequently obliged to pass ~~so~~ arches of stone this famous river, which is here an impetuous torrent, rushing with a thundering noise over masses of fallen rock.

These bridges, often elevated three hundred feet above the torrent, the protections constructed to preserve them from the frequent *avalanches* which encumber and embarrass the road, the passages cut out of the solid rock, the cascades dashing across the torrents from which the ice depends in long and variegated festoons, and the obscurity which reigns in this dreadful path,

* Capital of the canton of the Grisons, the *Curia Rhetorum* of the Romans.

augmented by the firs which crown the heights, create in the *Via Mala* one of the most picturesque scenes that can be imagined, one of the finest horrors of the chaos of the Grand Alps.'

For the remainder of the description, which is given at some length, and in which the difficulties encountered by the French army are excellently described, we must refer our readers to the work; as our limits will oblige us to advance to the arrival of the French troops at Chiavenna.

This object having been effected, the passage of the *Valle* line in the valley of *Camonica* was next undertaken by General *Macdonald*, at *Apriga*, between the valley of the *Adda* and that of the *Oglio*; which is one of the most difficult passes in the Alps. A larger map accompanies this section, but still on too small a scale to give a good idea of the position. This operation was performed amid innumerable difficulties, and *Macdonald* found himself able to co-operate with General *Brune*. He attacked *Mont-Tonal* twice, which the Austrians at length abandoned; and here properly commences the campaign of 1801, as these entrenchments were destroyed in the January of that year.

The IVth chapter reverts to the operations of *Moreau* and the Gallo-Batavian armies in Germany, and details the taking of *Salzburg*, the retreat of the Austrians, and the arrival of the Archduke *Charles* to assume the command of the Austrian forces; together with the battle of *Nuremberg*, the retreat of *Klenau*, and the marches of *Moreau* on the *Enns*: concluding with the armistice of *Steyer*.

In the next chapter, the history again recurs to the army of Italy; and in it are given the first and second passage of the *Mincio*, the battle of *Pozzuolo*, the retreat of General *Bellegarde*, the celebrated passage of the *Adige*, the battle of *Montebello*, the passage of the *Brenta* by Marshal *Brune*, the combat of *Castel-Franco*, and the armistice of *Treviso*, January 16. 1801.—Several plans of the different places attacked accompany this part of the work; which is extremely well calculated for the study of an engineer; and in which the military characters of many of *Bonaparte's* best Generals are given, such as *Oudinot*, *Moncey*, *Suchet*, *Davoust*, *Dupont*, *Marmont*, and *Baraguay D'Hilliers*.

The sixth and last chapter of the first volume is appropriated to the relation of the events which occurred in Lower Italy, during the period above mentioned. It commences by shewing the reasons and the progress of the expedition of *Murat* against *Ancona*; and it then proceeds to detail the events which took place in *Piedmont*, with the situation of

Tuscany, the Neapolitan war, the armistice of Foligno, the peace of Florence, the march of *Soult* to occupy the ports on the Adriatic, and the expedition undertaken by order of *Murat* against Elba. It contains also the orders which *Bonaparte* gave to *Murat* for his conduct, and relates the manner in which he conciliated the Pope, and forced him to become a party in his designs of aggrandizement.

A beautiful plan of the Isle of Elba is attached for the explanation of this part of the volume; which is rendered doubly interesting by the recent events in that region, and by the praises bestowed on the conduct of the English officer, Colonel Airey, who defended Porto Ferrajo.

We now reach the sixth volume of the essays, and the second of the campaign of 1801: but it is much shorter than the last, being composed principally of abstracts from celebrated treaties, diplomatic correspondences, and other matters necessary for the information of the reader of this work.

We shall content ourselves with giving a cursory glance at the subjects of its chapters and notes, and transcribing such brief passages as we may deem the most interesting. As the chapters are continued from the last volume, the first which meets our attention is the seventh of the series. It contains a statement of the brilliant aspect of the French consular government at the beginning of the 19th century; an historical relation of the second (or infernal machine) attempt on the life of the First Consul; the negotiations for peace; and the treaty of Luneville. — Count DUMAS relates the attempt on the Consul's life in the same way in which it has already been communicated by other writers; and, having stated the punishment of the culprits, he adds: 'All France was indignant at this villainous attempt; all Europe resounded with it. The fortune of *Bonaparte*, and the lustre of his star, became brighter than ever, and his ascendancy at home and abroad was more firmly fixed than before. He replied to the first felicitations which were addressed to him, in these remarkable words; "*The Chief of the state is always on the field of battle.*"'

To the political sketches of the state of Europe, which occupy the rest of this chapter, we have not so much to object as in the former volume; they are confined in general to actual detail; few opinions are hazarded; and though, perhaps, rather too much spun out, they are less exceptionable in their general character and tendency. At the end of this chapter is the following paragraph:

'General *Morreau*, to whom the nation was not less indebted than to *Bonaparte* for the peace of Luneville, was almost forgotten
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in the prodigality of homage showered on the latter; his brilliant services certainly found a worthy recompence in the national esteem, and in the affection of his soldiers: but his happy rival suffered not with patience a partner in glory.'

Bonaparte, the author might have added, thought that *Moreau* had designs similar to those which he was forming, and therefore eagerly endeavoured to throw so formidable a rival into the shade of public opinion.

Reflections on the peace of Luneville, and its results, occupy the eighth chapter. At this epoch, it appears, the French army amounted in active force to 277,000, while the Austrian army consisted of about 200,000.

The pacification of the continental powers being achieved, *Bonaparte* turned his thoughts towards Great Britain, and thus kept his soldiers in a state of subordination little to be expected after their return from such a series of victories.

'A species of crusade was then preached up against England: the orators of government, the authorities, and polemical writers, rivalled each other in their zeal; and France resounded with the repetition of the adage, so often and so uselessly quoted on both sides of the Channel, "Carthage must be destroyed." The old project of a descent on England was reproduced: but this eternal menace was not now merely a simple demonstration; the difficulties which it presented served only to excite the daring spirit of *Bonaparte*; they sharpened his endeavours; and, never convinced of the impossibility of such an undertaking, he conceived a gigantic plan, which we shall have occasion hereafter to develope.'

Of this 'gigantic' air-built speculation, the operations and the nugatory consequences are well known: but they are ably described in the pages of this work, and form one of its most interesting sections; especially to the English reader.

Discussions on the freedom of navigation, the maritime league of the north, and the complaints of the continental powers against aggressions on the ocean by the English, occupy the next chapter; in which also the character of the Emperor Paul of Russia is well investigated. We cannot help thinking, however, that this section might have been considerably shortened.

The tenth and last chapter is one of those which present peculiarly interesting features. It embraces the debates of the British parliament on the right of search; the invasion of the electoral dominions of Hanover by the Prussians; a sketch of the naval forces of the coalesced powers; the attack of Copenhagen by Lord Nelson; the death of Paul the First; and the dissolution of the armed neutrality. A faithful exposition of the immense preparations made to defend
K k 2 Copenhagen

ART. VI. *Lettres sur la Perse, et la Turquie d'Asie; &c. i. e.*
Letters on Persia, and Turkey in Asia. By J. M. TANCOIGNE.
2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1819. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz.
Price 11.

IT appears that M. TANCOIGNE accompanied General Gardanne, who was deputed by Bonaparte as ambassador to the court of Persia from France in the year 1807; and the British embassy of Sir Harford Jones took place at that very time, and has been splendidly recorded by Mr. Morier. The present French work, therefore, describes the Persians in the same state and at the same period, but will not add much to English information on the subject. In the preface, a high compliment is paid to a book little known, intitled *Anecdotes Orientales*, and also to the Travels of *Olivier*.

The Letters before us are professedly addressed to a lady; yet topics of considerable indelicacy, illustrative of Persian manners, are discussed with a degree of freedom which is scarcely allowable, unless to a male correspondent: at least, which appears in this light to an English eye. The first letter is rather expository; and the second brings us to Constantinople. The author then traces the route through Scutari to Nicomedia, or Ismith. Kartal, Pentik, Gheibizé, and Herekia, pass under concise survey; and, though no great attention was paid by these travellers to the monuments of antiquity, they are careful to record facts of practical utility to future peregrinators. In Letter III. is described the stage from Nicomedia to Nice, or Isnik; and Karamousal, Kiz-Dervend, the lake Ascanius, and Poialidja, obtain the requisite notice on the road.

Letter IV. Nice to Angora. — The intervening places are Sacharia, Ak-serai, Balaban-Zâdé, Dere-Bey, Gheivé, Teraklu, Torbalu, Kiostebek, Nalikhán, Sivri-Hissar, Bey-Bazar, and Aias. Of all these villages the account is short: but, the names and distances being usually given, and some particulars of the chances for accommodation, an independent traveller may derive some convenient information from possessing this portable book, which he would have to extract from the more massy volumes of Mr. Morier. It is a good practical itinerary.

Letter V. Angora to Josgat. — As it is useless to copy a gazetteer of names of villages, which are not to be found in maps or in geographical dictionaries, we shall merely indicate the main route, whence the reader will perceive on what points he is likely to derive any accession of knowledge.

Letter VI. Josgat to Tocat. — VII. Tocat to Kara-Hisar.
— VIII. Kara-Hisar to Arz-roum. — IX. Arz-roum to
Baiazid.

Baiazid. — X. Baiazid to Khoi. — XI. Khoi to Tauris. — XII. Tauris to Zenghan. — XIII. Zenghan to Kasbin. — XIV. Kasbin to Thehran. As this becomes a place of stay, the author here throws together the mass of his information concerning the Persian nation. — The Letters XV. to XVIII. contain an epitome of the history of Persia. The nineteenth treats of the character and manners of the people; and the twentieth describes the Nighiaristan, the ruins of Rhages, the religious ceremonies, and the public schools.

Volume II. opens with the twenty-first letter, which gives an account of the Ramazan, or fast, and of those religious dramas in which is represented the martyrdom of Hassan and Hussein. In the twenty-second, much is said of the Persian women: and coloured engravings occur of ladies smoaking, and of ladies bathing, or rather staining red the soles of their feet after having bathed. — Letter XXIII. The Feast of the New Year. The Persian Calendar, and connected Topics. — XXIV. State of Justice and Police. — XXV. Diseases of Persia. Here we will extract a remarkable passage. (Vol. II. p. 69.)

‘ If the plague be brought into Persia by some stranger, (an unfortunate case in which we found ourselves,) it never propagates there; and its murderous influence seldom extends beyond one or two victims. What is the cause of this? I know not. Do not, however, suspect that the Persians owe their security to any salutary precautions of quarantine, or to such fumigations as are sometimes adopted in Europe. No, Madam. They are just as improvident as the Turks, and owe their security apparently to their climate, which does not suffer the plague to flourish there. In return, the Persians are subject to many diseases not common among their Turkish neighbours, such as ophthalmia.’

Letter XXVI. relates to the literature and language, and includes a tediously long translation made by the author from the Gulistan of Saadi. In the twenty-seventh, he quits Thehran, and returns to Kasbin on his way back to Europe. In the next letter is described the road from Tauris (we adopt the author's orthography, but presume that he means the Tabris of our own travellers,) to Erzerum (our *Arz-roum*). In order to vary the rest of the way, he here determines to go to Trebizond, and to embark on the Black Sea for Constantinople. He accordingly gives us his route through the villages of Elidja, Kotchik, Baiboud, Chebin-Khané, and Jaila, to Trebizond. On this journey, he repeatedly found himself in the precise tract of Xenophon's retreating army.

‘ The antient and modern Greeks give to Trebizond the name of *Trapezontas*, which comes from *trapeza*, a square, on account of

of the form of this city. In fact, from the mountain of the ten-thousand it has a very square appearance. The Turks, who corrupt all names, call it Tarabezoun. I estimate its population at twenty-five thousand inhabitants, of which a small number are Greeks and Arminians. The city is built in a rich and magnificent country, on a low and smooth shore, overlooked by very woody hills. As this coast offers no sufficient shelter against gales from the north, which are very common, the vessels usually lie at *Platana*, a good roadstead about three leagues west of this place, and come to Trebizond only for the least possible time to load or unload. The traders at Trebizond are wealthy; they chiefly deal in timber, which grows at hand; in copper, of which there are mines in the neighbourhood; and in peltry, which is brought from *Arz-roum*.

In the XXXth letter, M. TANCOIGNE embarks in a felucca at Trebizond for Samsoun, and thus falls in with a track described in Capt. Beaufort's *Karamania*. (See our last number.) The village of Cadi-Keui is also described. In the thirty-first letter, he re-embarks for Sinope.

'Sinope, or Sinub, as the Turks call it, is situated on a narrow isthmus, which forms the communication between the continent and the peninsula on which stood the antient city. It is half-way between Trebizond and Constantinople, that is, about a hundred leagues from each, thirty west from Samsoun, and twelve south-west from Cape Indgé. Its harbour, or road, is formed on the north-west by the city and peninsula, and on the south-west by the continent; and it is the safest and best haven on the southern coast of the Black Sea. The Turkish government has erected an arsenal there, and is building a ship of war, to mount seventy-four guns.

'I estimate the population of Sinope at twelve thousand inhabitants. The greater part are Turks, and dwell within the fortifications; the Greeks and Arminians mostly reside in a suburb by the sea-side opposite to the peninsula; and here stands the house of the French consul. The Turks of Sinope are calm and pacific, very different from the ferocious inhabitants of Trebizond.' — 'I walked with M. *Fourcade*, the French consul, who is occupied with a work on the antiquities of Sinope, over the site of the former city. The peninsula is a mountain, of which the base has a circumference of four leagues; and at the summit is a lake of good water, which feeds the numerous fountains of the city through subterranean aqueducts made by the antient Greeks: but the Turks are suffering these useful works to fall into decay. Ruins of the palace of Mithridates and of a fine gymnasium are yet extant. The disposition of the apartments can still be traced, and the walls are of bricks three times as large as those which we now make: but the roofs have fallen in; and the marbles have been removed for the decoration of mosques.' — 'Medals and antient coins of various kinds are easily bought here for their weight in silver.'

504 *Voyages and Travels from New York to New Orleans, &c.*

Letter XXXII. — The author now arrives, once more, at Constantinople, and gives a very clear and succinct account of the revolutions which shook that capital in 1807 and 1808. This fragment of civil history is too long for us to transcribe, but it forms an important accession to European record. The subject is continued in the thirty-third letter; and the thirty-fourth and thirty-fifth are occupied by the often described antiquities of Constantinople. The next and concluding epistle relates the author's journey from Constantinople to Leopold in Austrian Galicia; and here again much new road is passed, first along the western coast of the Black Sea to the mouth of the Danube, and then along the current of that river. When the inconveniences of this part of the journey are detailed, although the government, in whose territory it occurs, has the reputation of being civilized, it may be wished that some enterprising persons from this country would purchase from the Austrian Emperor an exclusive privilege to run steam-boats on the Danube from Vienna to its mouth, and thence to provide the fittest conveyance to Constantinople. London will soon want much intercourse with the metropolis of Persia; and to smooth the road by timely preparation and official negotiation is to facilitate the civilization of the world.

ART. VII. *Voyage fait dans les Années 1816 et 1817 de New York à la Nouvelle Orléans, &c.; i. e. Voyages and Travels, in 1816 and 1817, from New York to New Orleans, and from the Orinoco to the Mississippi, by the little and great Antilles, &c.* By the Author of "*Recollections of the Antilles.*" 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 1l.

THE author of these volumes has been made known to our readers in our lxxxviii volume, p. 483.; where we reported his singular and agreeable voyage among the West-Indian islands, which he intitled "*Recollections of the Antilles.*" The present publication is not so interesting a book of travels; since it visits countries better known, and of which in our own language we possess accounts more instructive and complete. We shall be rapid, therefore, in our survey of its contents.

In August, 1816, the writer entered the Chesapeak-bay, and landed at Norfolk in Virginia. The inn may be fairly described: but the American people, and their manners, are so bitterly satirized on the very first day of arrival, that it is evident that the prejudice landed with him which

was to determine his point of view. The work has the strict form of a journal, and to every date in the diary is attached some appertaining train of observation, or reflection.

From Norfolk the author crossed over to Baltimore, where he landed on the 4th of September, and staid about a week. He then examined the city of Washington, George-town, Alexandria, and Fredericksburg. He next passed into Orange-county, visited President Madison at Montpelier, the Ex-president Jefferson at Monticello, and Mr. Monro, who resided in the same neighbourhood. At the end of the month, he returned to Baltimore.

The next excursion is to Philadelphia, Bristol, Trenton, New Brunswick, and New York. Here the author embarked for New Orleans; and, after a tedious passage by sea, he arrived there on the 25th of November. In the journal kept on ship-board, general reflections on the United States are inserted; and, among other matters, great fault is found with the austere manner in which the Sunday is there spent. The antient Jews, and the first Christians, like the modern Catholics, indulged a very opposite practice, and avowedly observed the Sabbath as a day of cheerful recreation, of amusive pastimes, of sports, games, plays, dances, and feasts. Calvin brought into circulation those opinions which founded among the Protestants an excessive *fear* of God; and which represented the Deity as a tyrannical and vindictive being, hostile to the pleasures of man, and only to be propitiated by the voluntary misery of his creatures. These somewhat impious views of the divine nature led to the austerities which still distinguish the American Sunday; and they have accustomed the families descended from the old Puritans to encourage a morose and gloomy self-denial as a mark of religious fervour, and to spend the day of God in melancholy indolence and reciprocal censure. The people of New Orleans, who are of French descent, but who have more real religion than the European French, profess the *love* of God; deem him a kind Being, who delights in the happiness of his creatures; and consequently celebrate his holy-day by opening the theatre and the ball-room. We need not remark on the objections which attach to both these extremes.

At p. 204. the author notices an important error in Norie's Chart of the West Indies, engraved in London by Stevenson in 1816, where the southern extremity of the island Abaco is laid down in a manner dangerously inexact.

In the diary for November 27. some curious particulars are given of the late attack of the English on New Orleans; which, in this author's judgment, might have been taken by

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surprise, if the assailants had not waited for their artillery. In the diary for December 1. it is maintained that the sale of Louisiana by *Bonaparte* is, according to the law of nations, invalid; and that the French have a right to resume this province as inalienable from the crown of France, until such alienation has received the consent of the legitimate dynasty. New Orleans is perhaps not fixed in the best situation for the eventual emporium of the river Mississippi: but, wherever the great sea-port of the great river shall be founded, there will arise one of the huge cities of the world, a new Pekin, or a new London. The traveller laments the progressive intrusion of North-American families into New Orleans, who will gradually destroy the gaiety and ease of manners which the French had there domesticated. 'They have chosen,' he says, p. 267., 'a quarter in the upper town, opposite to the suburb of St. Mary, and have built there some octagon red brick houses with guillotine windows,' (his phrase for sashes,) 'where a proud and ignorant pedant declaims to a hypocritical audience about original sin, and other such nonsensical combinations of words.'

The second volume opens with the 11th of January, 1817, on which day the author set sail from New Orleans for the Havannah, where he arrived on the 16th of the same month. As this visit to Havannah appears to us the newest and most instructive part of the book, and in some measure to complete his previous account of the West Indies, we shall here make an extract.

'Havannah, 16th January, 1817. I was disagreeably surprized on my entrance into the city, last night, to find the streets extremely dirty. They are narrow, unpaved, and hollow in the middle. The little space into which the passengers are squeezed on each side is not even levelled: the lamps give no light: in the day, no names are any where legible; and, if it rains, even in a small degree, there is not a possibility of stirring out on foot. In all the public squares, cabriolets, or gigs, drawn by one mule, are to be hired; in which a stuff-curtain in front excludes the prospect, the sun, and the dust.

'The Havannah does not resemble the modern European towns, but has the character of those old Spanish cities in which the Moors bore sway. I seemed to be walking in *Herculaneum*, or *Pompeii*. The houses have but one story, and this is without a ceiling. The walls are white-washed above, and at bottom are striped into blue and yellow compartments. The floor is merely earth, wetted, and rammed hard. They have no chimneys, although at present the cold is sufficient to render fires welcome. The candlesticks and lamps are of brass, of aukward form and disagreeable odour. The windows, twelve feet above the ground, are

are not glazed, but filled up with wooden gratings; behind which the women sit and look abroad. They are never seen in the streets, but may often be heard playing on the guitar, or singing. Many white people are wandering about with an appearance of abject misery, which this race seems to incur no where else in the West Indies. Laziness and filth are "the order of the day."

'The circumstance most lamentable at Havannah is the knowledge that a person is at every moment exposed to be assassinated. We hear of nothing but stabs and stilettoes. Children play with little daggers, and their favourite game is a mimic murder. A few days ago a lady was killed in the street with a poignard. It is imprudent to go abroad after seven o'clock. Jealousy and vengeance are commonly the motives of these atrocities; not want. If an offended man has sworn the fall of his enemy, nothing can save the culprit; he is watched night and day, dogged hither and thither, at length met in some snug passage, and stretched 'lifeless on the ground. These execrable scenes are so frequent, that a party never assembles without some one relating his narrow escapes.

'The cathedral is a stone building, externally in bad taste, but internally simple and noble. It has the form of a Greek cross, and is decorated with good paintings by an Italian named *Peruagni*.' — 'Between six and seven o'clock, when the bell rings for the *oration*, every one stops in the street, takes off his hat, and prays during five minutes. The mules know their duty as well as their masters, and stop without being checked. In domestic circles, every one rises from the card-table or the music-desk, and prays; after which young ladies go up to papa, kiss his hand, wish him a good night, and retire.

'Place San Francisco is a pleasant square: it is decorated with a fountain having three spouts of water, and embellished with marble architecture. The view from this platform comprehends the roadstead, which is covered with innumerable shipping, and bordered with a panorama of woody and cultivated hills.' — 'I have been told that there are eighty thousand inhabitants.' — 'Much smuggling occurs in this port; and American and English vessels, though they have no liberty of trading here, nevertheless abound.

'The laws concerning slavery are very mild. A black man may not be sold for more than he cost, and the master is compellable to redeem him at that price: or, if, by any particular exertion or chance, a negro has paid off a part of his redemption-money, the master can only sell him for the remainder.'

How important is it that some provisions of this kind should be introduced into the Protestant islands! All persons of colour, moreover, should be born free. *Partus sequitur ventrem* is the present maxim of colonial law: but the opposite principle would be more worthy of paternal humanity.

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The Havannah is described at so much length by this author, that it will be impracticable for us to copy his account entirely: but it well deserves to be appended to the new translation of his *Recollections of the Antilles*, which would then form an excellent survey of that whole groupe of islands in the West Indies which are not under British dominion, but which ought to be studied by the British law-giver; in order that whatever useful arts of life, or whatever humane regulations, may have been realized in any one, they should by the fostering hand of government be rendered a common benefit. The southern Europeans carried with them to their trans-Atlantic settlements many traditional usages adapted to warm climates: their temperance, their diet, their gardening, their aqueducts, their architecture, still supply valuable hints; and it is certainly unfortunate that any barriers, contrived by commercial monopoly, should resist a more frequent intercourse of the islands with each other, and with the main land. Reciprocal imitations, favourable to the increased luxury of all, would result from easier traffic. If fairs, public games, and annual assemblages, were provided and advertized in every little island of the West Indian Archipelago, a Greek love of festivities and frolics would soon be diffused among the whole population. At these insular meetings, European merchants would attend to display their wares and boast of their arts, and would more rapidly scatter the wants and refinements of that advanced civilization of which they distribute the superfluities. At present, only a Spartan barbarism subsists in the West Indies: the negroes are Helots, and the whites are privileged tyrants: but Creoles of colour multiply fast, and will become the predominant indigenous people. Then will be seen to arise a more natural state of society, for which the present compulsory institutions are but a preparation; when hired and voluntary labour shall supersede inflicted toil; when proprietors shall consider themselves, and not their vassals, as belonging to the soil, and shall found on it a permanent magnificence and a resident luxury; when the leisure of opulence shall forsake the orgies of intemperance for the pastimes of the Muses; when the fine arts shall resume an antique freedom under the patronage of the pleasures; and when the artificial refinements of the most experienced nations shall be domesticated in every considerable household.

The remains of Columbus were formerly deposited at San-Domingo: but, during the late troubles, they were transferred to the Havannah, and are now buried in the cathedral there with the following inscription:

N. O. M.

‘ D. O. M.
 Claris. heros Ligustin.
 Christophorus Colombus
 a se rei nautic. scient. insign.
 nov Orb. detect.
 aique Castellæ Legion. Regib. subject.
 Vallis occub.
 XIII. kal. Jun. A. MDVI.
 Cartusianor. Hispal. Cadav. cust. tradit.
 transfer. nam ipse præscrips.
 in Hispaniolæ Metrop. Eccl.
 Hinc pace sancit. Galliæ Reipub. cess.
 in hanc V. Mar. Concept. Imm. Cat-losa transv.
 maxima omn. ord. frequent. sepult. mand.
 XIV. kal. Feb. A. MDCCXCVI.
 Hav. civit.
 tant. vir. meritor in se non immem.
 præcios. exuv. in optat. diem tuitur.
 Hoc. monum. erex.
 Præsul ill. D.D. Philipo Joseph
 Trespalacios.
 Civic. ac Milit. rei gen. P. p. æ. e.
 D.D. Ludovico d. Las Casas.’

The author next visited the Bahama islands; and especially Guanahani, the first of them which Columbus discovered. He next proceeded to Charlestown in Carolina; where he embarked for Guadeloupe, and landed on Pointe-à-pître. Having visited the governor and several of his former friends, he proceeded to Saint Thomas, and there took shipping for Europe. His landing at Brest took place on the 1st of September, 1817.

Some allowance must be made for the strong prejudices of this traveller. A Parisian, and an ultra-royalist, he views with excessive animosity those deficiencies of luxury which a new country has not yet acquired; and those sincerities of opinion which an unfettered people will naturally express without disguise: but his observations have novelty, his descriptions are animated, and his relations are principally derived from personal inspection, not from the published accounts of others.

ART. VIII. *Des Dépenses et Recettes, &c.; i. e.* On the Expenditure and Revenue of France in 1818, and on the State of Public Credit. By Count LANJUINAIS, Peer of France. 8vo. pp. 48. Paris. 1818.

THE name of LANJUINAIS is familiar to those who have studied the early part of the French Revolution, and marked the courageous opposition of virtuous men to the
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hypocrisy and tyranny of the Jacobins. Such was the conduct of this writer, whose escape from the judicial murders of 1793 and 1794 was matter of equal surprize and congratulation to his countrymen. At a subsequent date, he clung for some time to the hope of a performance of the promises so solemnly made by *Bonaparte*: but, on finding that they were at first evaded and at last openly violated, he disdained to act the part of a flatterer, or to accept of office under such a ruler, and withdrew from all active participation in public affairs. On the restoration of the Bourbons, he was again brought before the public, and promoted to the peerage; an honour which has not, however, had the effect of preventing him from differing with the ministers whenever he deemed opposition conducive to the interest of his country. The short pamphlet under review is evidently the work of a man more anxious for the attainment of practical good than for obtaining attention to himself; the topics discussed in it being very uninviting, and the whole partaking less of a popular address than of a memorial or exhortation to government. It consists of an exposition of various unauthorized disbursements of the public money, and of deviations from the *Charte constitutionnelle*; the whole stated with clearness, but without the slightest intention to dazzle the imagination of the public. It is observed: (p. 17.)

‘ Our prime minister (the Duke *de Richelieu*) was satisfied with an annual salary of 4000l. sterling; why should not each of his colleagues follow his example in this the day of our distress? Why should each minister have attached to his office an under-secretary of state at a high stipend, if such was not deemed necessary when the empire had nearly twice its present extent? The annual salaries of the *Conseillers d’Etat* amount collectively to above 40,000l. Though with several this is merely an honorary office, I do not call for a restriction of their number, but for a limitation of their allowance. The Directors of our financial boards were formerly satisfied with salaries of 600l., but in 1810 they were doubled; and of late, notwithstanding the pressure of the times, they have been extended to 2400l., while those of their assistants amount to 1000l. each.

‘ The pension-list, before the Revolution, comprized some very exorbitant allowances; and, though at present the pensions are in general small, they are diffused over every class of the population. The published list exhibits above 265,000 individuals receiving collectively a sum of 3,300,000l. sterling; many of these pensions should be subjected to a scrutiny; and the printed returns ought invariably to contain the date and the motive of the grant.

‘ With regard to the expence of the *Cadastre*, or general survey of the kingdom, I am far from objecting to the annual grant of 120,000l. sterling for the additional operations: but we ought

to avoid *minutiae* in measurement and calculation; and, without waiting for the completion of this very long and laborious task, we should adopt some method of correcting the disproportion that exists in the payments of a number of land-holders. Lands surveyed on the new plan are taxed at 20 per cent. of their produce, while many of the unsurveyed lands do not pay above 10, or in some cases not above 7 per cent. I must object also to all unauthorized augmentations of the *ratio* of a tax, whether we look to the *foncier* in the country or to the *mobilier* in the capital: the rate of the latter has been quadrupled in the last four years, while the town-dues (*octrois*) are arbitrarily augmented by orders from the ministers and the departmental council. The city of Bordeaux lately borrowed a sum of 100,000*l.*; and Paris, in March, 1817, borrowed 1,300,000*l.*, without any authority from the legislature, and without rendering any account of the appropriation of these large sums.

Adverting in another place to subjects of more general interest, the author observes;

‘ It is of the highest importance to reduce some of our taxes, particularly the *Enrégistrement*, or duty on the sale of lands, houses, or other property: its present amount (above 5 per cent. on the principal) is exorbitant, and must cause either a stagnation of such business, or a fraudulent evasion of the law. The state of the poor calls likewise for legislative interference, not in the shape of a poor-rate, but for a reduction of expence and trouble in the forms required for the sale or inheritance of their little properties; and we ought also to make some modification of the taxes that more particularly press on them. A higher quarter, the Chamber of Deputies, next claims our attention. It is essential to the public welfare that the elections of the members should be more independent of government-influence; that the promised law on the organization of local magistracies should be passed; and that a strong check should be imposed on the arbitrary proceedings of prefects. To these I would add an establishment for the loan of money on the deposit of securities of various kinds; this establishment to be unconnected with the public finances, and to extend its operations over the whole kingdom. Lastly, our military returns comprize four Swiss regiments, whose collective pay is equal to a seventh of the pay of the whole French army: why should we not imitate the jealousy of England with regard to foreign troops, and substitute for them regiments of Frenchmen?’

We have no remarks to make on the style of Count LANJUINAIS, except that it is concise and perspicuous; which we might naturally expect from an unassuming man who writes with a view to public utility. As to the matter, his observations, though chiefly interesting to his countrymen, are by no means devoid of attraction to foreigners; because they exhibit, in a very clear view, the chief defects and grievances

‘ Nothing speaks to the imagination so strongly as these objects, which have happily escaped destruction, and which seem to bring into time present the vouchers for time past. Temples and palaces crumble; statues break; and, while the great works of antiquity perish, these little examples steal through the crevices of ages, and come down to us. On the stamped metal remain proofs of the gratitude of nations to their benefactors; and their names descend to posterity with those of the cities, whose very existence would be unknown to us if medallie evidence had not preserved the memorial of their designations.

‘ Besides this historic interest, medals supply another, that of offering to artists models of execution: for, after so many improvements in art, we remain inferior to the ancients in the engraving of medals. Our coinage has been highly improved, and the form and weight of the pieces are exquisitely regular: but the figures have not that fine character which distinguishes those of the Greek medals. Sculpture has recovered among us an excellence, which leaves room to hope that it will one day attain the perfection of the antique; painting is cultivated with a success which puts the French school almost above the fear of rivalry: but our die-gravers do not approach the perfection of the Locrians and Syracusans.

‘ Engraving on medals is, like sculpture, an art more simple and uniform than painting: little picturesque effects must have no place there. In the basso-relievo of a medal, the object is not to deceive the eye by perspective appearances; beauty of form and purity of contour are the only permitted illusions. Correctness, grace, and expression, contribute to the effect of this art. Taste especially exacts unity of composition; a consistent assemblage of parts forming a whole, free from episodes. The uniformity of the colour of the metal, on which the artist works, increases the necessity of the law that requires him to be simple in composition and correct in execution.’

To these introductory remarks succeed eleven chapters on the science of Medals: which treat of coins in general; on the causes of the establishment of a monetary system; on the inventors of coin; on the material of early coins; on the weight and purity of ancient monies; on the fabrication of money; on the forms and diversities of Greek coins; on the right of striking money; on types; on inscriptions; and on the epochs of the numismatic art. Then follow engraved specimens of Greek coins, arranged in the order in which Anacharsis visited the cities of Greece. Thus Panticapea, a city of the Tauric Chersonesus, is the first town which supplies a specimen; and the Persian Daric occurs next, as being incidentally mentioned in an early part of the voyage.

Thirty-nine plates are given in the first volume; which include coins of Byzantium, Marseilles, Cyrene, Thasos, Mitylene, Methymna, Carystus, Eretria, Chalcis, Athens, Phocis,

Phocis, Delphi, Amphipolis, Leta, Abdera, Bœotia, Tanagra, Platæa, Thespizæ, Orontium, Thessaly, Lamia, Larissa, Ambracia, Leucas, Acarnania, Etolia, Megara, Corinth, Achaia, Euridicea, and Messenia; besides the sovereigns Alexander I., Archelaus, and Philip II. — In Vol. II. are fifty plates; which preserve medals of Pylos, Lacedæmon, Arcadia, Pheneæ, Stymphalia, Argos, Trezena, Egina, Syracuse, Agrigentum, Gela, Chios, Cuma, Smyrna, Clazomene, Ephesus, Miletus, Cnidus, Mylasa, Rhodes, Rhodes, Cnossus, the Cretan cities of Chersonesus, Itanos, Præsos and Cidonia, Cos, Samos, Tenos, Andros, Syros, the Cyclade isles of Seriphos and Siphnos, Melos, Naxos, Crotona, Thurium, Sidé, Ænos, Acanthus, Hyelea, Panormus, Metapontum, Heraclea, and of the Britians, besides those of Alexander the Great.

As the great merit of this work consists in the plates, which are well executed, and copied from rare originals in high preservation; and as the explanations attached to the respective engravings, however learnedly executed, are not very intelligible without the graphic delineations to which they refer; we shall not trouble our readers with farther extracts from the text. One of the articles that does least honour to the erudition of the author is that which relates to the two coins of Panormus, where the Punic inscriptions are left undecyphered.

If the Greek Atlas, which M. *Barbier du Bocage* published some years ago as a supplement to the *Anacharsis*, found a welcome reception throughout Europe, we are persuaded that the same fate awaits this medallie supplement of M. LANDON; and we trust that a quarto edition of it will be provided for the accommodation of those who possess quarto copies of the *Anacharsis*. Elegant, however, as the idea may appear, thus to illustrate the classical production of the Abbé *Barthélémy*, yet this inconvenience attends the plan, that it excludes every medal and every personage not mentioned in that work: when a little additional labour in the author would have rendered this publication a complete series of Greek medallie history; and the materials were all within his reach for giving to it a substantive completeness, and an independent literary rank, which will always be refused to subsidiary efforts and supplementary industry.

ART. X. *Mémoires et Correspondance de Madame d'Epinay, &c.*; i. e. Memoirs and Correspondence of Madame d'Epinay, in which she relates her acquaintance with *Duclos, J. J. Rousseau, Grimm, Diderot, Baron d'Holbach, St. Lambert, Madame d'Houdetot*, and other celebrated persons of the Eighteenth Century. Containing a great Number of unpublished Letters from *Grimm, Diderot, and J. J. Rousseau*, illustrative and corrective of the *Confessions* of the latter. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 1l. 10s.

“AND who are you?” said the Commissary in Tristram Shandy. — “Don’t puzzle me,” said Tristram; — and, really, if this question were put to many of the noblesse of Paris, Naples, Madrid, Berlin, Vienna, and St. Petersburg, it would be most perplexing and ill-natured. Even in our moral and virtuous London, it would be extremely unreasonable to expect, from a considerable number of its population, that they should with certainty and precision give the names of their real fathers. Indeed, with persons in the higher latitudes of life in the great cities abroad, it has long been a puzzling question: with us, it is only a growing embarrassment, but growing so very fast that, in a short time, to ask such a question of a man will be among the forbidden things. It will be like the word “*Whiskers*,” in the court of the Queen of Navarre, too shocking to be uttered; too full of combinations to be endured; — in short, an expression totally unfit for use.

Thus are we brought to the Memoirs of Madame d'Epinay: but first, thou “Queen of the silver bow,” as Charlotte Smith has it, cold as the Laureate’s verse, chaste as —; a comparison here is not so easy to be found: but no matter: — Spotless, pure Diana † guide the thoughts and pen of a reviewer, that, while he wanders through the lubricities of memoirs in which all is lubricous, he himself may not slip, nor forget the memorials of circumspection and decorum which Time has scattered on his temples; — and thou, cruel mother of the Cupids, spare him

“*Cujus octavum trepidavit ætas
Condere lustrum.*”

Armed with such invocations as with a panoply, we approach these volumes, and enter boldly on their contents.

The subject of these memoirs has been already introduced to the world by the “Confessions” of *Rousseau*; by the space assigned to her name in the entertaining gossip-book of *Grimm*, in which the *Tutti Quanti* of Parisian society are honoured, if not with a respectful, at least with a deserved mention; and by her own work, “*Les Conversations d’Emilie*,” which obtained

tained the distinction of a prize from the French Academy. The memoirs themselves, which may be styled rather a romantic history than an historical romance, had been confided after her death to the care of M. Grimm, and were supposed to have been lost: but they were recovered, and are now, with more respect to the history of a licentious generation than to the fame of their writer, committed to the press. Madame d'Epinay, in speaking of her own history written by herself, tells us that 'she does not present the public with a romance, but with the true memoirs of a family, and of many societies composed of men and of women subject to the weaknesses of humanity.' It appears that they were written from an unconquerable inclination to write something; and that, fascinated with the well-cadenced and harmonious periods, and not less, we conceive, with the slippery scenes and dangerous seductions of the "*Nouvelle Heloise*," the wish of writing something centered itself in a wish to write a romance. Madame d'Epinay, and her sister Madame d'Houdetot, were among the very first who listened to the profligate and unmanly commencement of the *Heloïse*; and it may be apprehended that the desire of writing was not the only unconquerable desire lighted up by attending to the progress of that tale. Not enjoying very good health, and not much molested by the intrusion of husband or children, Madame d'Epinay had time for writing; and, in order that a degree of mystery might be thrown round her work, (containing, we are told, under the name of romance, a series of undisputed truths,) she invested the *dramatis personæ* with new names: a veil which, out of regard to some of their descendants, has not been entirely withdrawn from the whole company.

The maiden name of this lady was d'Esclavelles. After the death of her father in the service of the King, during the campaign of 1735, his widow went into the native province of her husband, to collect the few scattered remnants of a patrimony which had been chiefly expended in the service; and her daughter was taken under the protection of a Madame de Beaufort, aunt of her deceased father, whom misfortune had compelled to fly the world and become the inmate of a convent. In this retreat, Mademoiselle d'Esclavelles lived under the care of her great-aunt for about three years; and her guardian was a M. de Lisieux, an old friend of her family. This gentleman is of infinite importance to the young lady in her future career. If the fair writer wishes to describe her personal or mental charms, genius, virtue, or excellence of any kind, she modestly throws the pen from her own hand, and dexterously transfers it to this kind guardian and adviser; and
having

having done so, she controuls his hand in such a way that it writes her down as good, lovely, virtuous, and all that heart could wish or faith believe of woman. In short, the pen in the hand of *M. de Lisieux* is so governed by his *élève*, that, in writing of her, it is made to "discourse most excellent music." After a short residence among the holy sisterhood, she goes with her mother to become one of the family of *M. la Live de Bellegarde*, whose lady is her mother's sister. Here she receives the addresses of their eldest son, *M. d'Epinay*, and marries the young man: but, as usual with French marriages, the young people become a constituent part of the establishment of their parents. The first fruits of this marriage are raptures, ecstasies, and delights; which would doubtless have strained the sense of pleasure too far if they had lasted: but, their duration being only a fortnight, the danger was diverted; and the happy couple, at the expiration of this term, descend gradually from complaint to fretfulness, from fretfulness to rage, from rage to *quietism*, and from *quietism* to mutual infidelity. Monsieur is found returning from unseemly places, at unseemly hours; and Madame is weeping, indignant, submissive, violent, tender, and somewhat frail, considering her abhorrence of all irregularities.

Before these last honours of matrimony are conferred on her husband, the pen of her useful guardian is called in to prove the excess of her affection to her unfaithful lord. He tells us, then, that, during *M. d'Epinay's* first absence of six months, she quite forgot his errors, and even believed herself to be in the wrong; she thought of nothing, wished for nothing, would touch nothing, and would converse or write on nothing, which was not intimately connected with her absent husband. It was, "*Oh! M. d'Epinay, dear M. d'Epinay;*" and, like Marcus Tullius Cicero speaking of his daughter, it was, "*Methinks I see my d'Epinay; methinks I hear my d'Epinay.*" Every object that retraced him was adorable; and the sight of his very creditors, who came to demand money from her, overwhelmed her with joy because they spoke of him, and, in all probability, spoke of him with that lively interest which is felt by few persons more than by this tribe of gentlemen.

During the absence of her husband, who was engaged on business connected with the government of the country, Madame *d'Epinay* pays an unfortunate visit to a jeweller, and recognizes the portrait of her own husband, richly set in jewels. To the unspeakable horror of this modest lady, she discovers that it is destined to be worn by one of the immodest sisterhood; yet suspicion on suspicion, and outrage upon outrage, are unable to shake her severity of virtue. Here we must observe the dexterous use which this good lady makes of her

former guardian, her friends, and intimates; all of whom are induced to concur in reporting evil of her husband, and in stimulating her to awake from her lethargy. Indeed, up to this time, she continues to live in the house of her father-in-law, and forms with M. d'Epinay but a certain part of one vast *ménage*; a kind of life that is usual in France, and is at once the cause and effect of the perpetual state of schism and intrigue among married people. The large and commodious houses of Paris were dictated by this state of intercourse, which is too social to be without danger. Thus Madame d'Epinay is surrounded by such a host of advisers, intimates admitted to every secret, tale-bearers, and individuals having more or less influence over her mind, that an Englishman of the middling class of society, who is to this day in general the selfish monopolizer of his own wife, would be tempted to inquire, "Who of the number is the actual husband of Madame d'Epinay?" In marrying, she becomes more than ever the property of mother, father-in-law, aunts, cousins, brothers-in-law, guardian, advisers, counsellors privy and public, and, in short, of first, second, and third gentlemen, all of whom are permitted to interfere with their opinions, and to presume on the liberty which is the appanage of all interference.

We are at length introduced to a gentleman, named Francueil, who is amiable and gallant; and who, as he undertook to publish "*Les Observations sur l'Esprit des Loix*," we must suppose to be possessed of considerable talents. On a closer acquaintance, he engages her mind; and, as the heart is somehow not so far off from the mind, as the lady would wish us to believe, she permits it to partake at first a small degree of the interest, and afterward gives at once the *laissez aller* to its affections, which are formally transferred from M. d'Epinay to M. Francueil. That this renunciation of all principle might receive its due varnish, a Mademoiselle d'Ette is introduced, to fill up the characters of the *Inferno*; whose advice is not to meet her husband's irregularities with complaint and sorrow, nor even to have recourse to religion, philosophy, and letters, as the means of diversion from unhappy thoughts, but simply to *retaliate*. To these diabolical suggestions must be added the unhappy possession of a *too susceptible heart*: which, in parting with its love for a husband, must continue to love something; and so, forgetful that some share of her affections might not unnaturally have been bestowed on her two children, she gives them all, not without much reasoning and ingenuity of argument, to a libertine: who, in the due progress of this abandoned comedy, seduces and deserts her.

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In good old times, a spade would have been called a spade; a prostitute would have been called a prostitute; a corn-bill, a stab at the vitals of the labouring classes; and a meeting of land-holders, for the purpose of excluding provisions from the country, would have been honoured by the appellation of "a conspiracy," and every member belonging to it been deemed a conspirator: but, in the inventions of modern sagacity, the terms "*existing circumstances*," and the "*uncontroulable chain of events*," graced by a sophism or two, howsoever false or shallow it matters not, will claim sympathy for such offenders, both private and public. So it is. Great wickedness will not want arguments to defend it. They may be procured in every court of law, to palliate any crime whatever; and they are applied by this weak woman to defend her abandonment of every moral duty. In short, Madame argues. Had she only *reasoned*, with good faith, and from a firm desire to see her own conduct as it really is, she would have been saved the crime and the remorse: but she is above reason; and, rejecting it entirely, she has recourse to sophistry and argument, and is lost. We had been taught by many writers and travellers, who no doubt have repeated the tale from each other, that French profligacy was so very refined as to have lost many of the marks and characters which distinguish profligacy in general: but these memoirs have undeceived us; and they prove to us, what we suspected, that, as there is no royal road to mathematics, so there is "no noble way of being profligate:" we mean, there is no way by which extreme immorality can be separated from grossness, and relieved of the disgust which it was by Providence intended to inspire. We shall be understood by those who may refer to a letter to Madame d'Epinay from Francueil, commencing "*Vous le voulez, ma chère Emilie*." (Vol. i. p. 185.) An arrangement, the fruits of mutual infidelity, is of course settled between this promising pair; by which both appear at liberty to follow the devices of their hearts. A handsome settlement of income and establishment is made on the wife, and the husband relinquishes all his claims on her: but, by a strange refinement, the two splendid establishments are harboured in the same home; their friendships, parties, and pursuits, are the same, or nearly so; mutual civilities appear to have been kept up; and their mutual antipathies are not accompanied by the *éclat* of separation.

The reader has by this time, in all probability, anticipated the infidelity of Francueil. A Madame Versal has *undertaken* this gentleman; and the new lovers agree on a trip to

an estate near Rouen, for the purpose of withdrawing themselves from the piercing eyes of the afflicted Emily. On this occasion, *M. d'Epinay* gallantly conducts his wife from the capital to the abode of her rival. Her ring had already been sacrificed to *Madame Versel*; but a few false words from the too tender *Francueil* recall a tolerable degree of hope that he will, at most, but divide his heart, and that *Madame Versel* will obtain the smaller portion.

Next comes despair; and next in the order of things, in those days, succeeds a call to be devout. This disposition, encouraged by a tender mother, who probably had attained to it by the same route, induces Emily (for by this name we will for the future call the heroine of these memoirs) to send for the *Abbé Martin*. We select the conversation between Emily and her mother, and the observations of this sensible ecclesiastic.

“It is true, then, that I have nothing to love in the world; lovers, friends, all abandon me. I do not even hear any thing of *Madame de Jully* *, though she knows me to be in affliction. My mother, my good mother, is the only one from whom I receive consolation. Alarmed at the prodigious change that she perceived in my appearance, and the cause of which is a secret to her, she came up into my apartment yesterday. “My child,” she said, “there is nothing in the world without a remedy; with courage and with confidence all may be surmounted. Speak to me, open your heart to your mother You have perhaps lost a friend,” (a sort of Attic HYPOCRISMUS for a lover,) — “but you have three more around you, who hold out their arms to you, I mean your children and myself. These friends will not deceive you: yield yourself to all the consolations that we offer; experience will convince us how unjust are men, how ungrateful, and how little they care for the misery of others, when their own interests are at stake. Is it of your husband, or of *Mademoiselle d'Ette*, or of *Madame Jully*, or of *M. de Francueil*, that you have to complain?” — “I have to complain of all the world, Mama,” I replied: “my heart is deeply wounded to see that friends only remain to us as long as gaiety and the pleasures invite them. I see but too well that my heart is not formed to attach to itself frivolous friends. It looks for a purer and more solid blessing. I am convinced that God has unveiled my eyes, and calls me to himself. Often have you spoken to me of the hollowness of those consolations which I sought, but I believed you not in those days.” — “My daughter,” rejoined my mother, “the discomfort that you now feel is the smallest misfortune that can befall you. I could have wished to have brought you, before now, to acknowledge the little value that we ought to set

* A sister-in-law, pursuing the exact career of *Madame d'Epinay*.

on men. Perfect happiness is to be found only in the true love of God, and repose only in a retired life. See *M. Martin*; confide to him the trouble of your soul. You will find, I am certain, a great consolation in his words."—"Mama," said I, "prescribe for your daughter all that you think fit; she is ready to obey."

'She wrote to the Abbé *Martin*, who is her director, desiring him to come and dine with us. He arrived on the next day; and, when I went down to the apartment of my mother, there I found him. I hoped that she would have broken the subject to him, but I believe that she had neglected to do so: for, when I entered, she told him that I earnestly desired he would undertake to direct my conduct, having resolved to think seriously on the subject of my salvation.—"This," said the Abbé, "is the wish of every good Christian; and the duties of your age and condition, Madam, are less painful and less difficult to fulfil than they are supposed." My mother left us, and I was a little embarrassed. "It is not necessary, Sir, to consider either my age or my condition. I am disgusted with the world; all that I see and experience in it persuades me daily, more and more, that it is impossible to *work out our salvation* in it. If I had the courage, and if my children could dispense with me, I would throw myself into a convent, and would take a vow never to come out of it."—"I confess to you, Madam," answered the Abbé, "that I set but little value on these *extreme* decisions, and have, in general, no confidence in these premature conversions. They are not solid; and the relapses from them are always troublesome. True devotion, Madam, and the disposition of the soul that is most agreeable to God, in morals and in philosophy, consist in deriving the greatest possible advantage from the situation in which Providence has placed us. A married woman, and the mother of a family, is not intended to be a Carmelite, nor to live like a Carmelite. Whenever persons permit themselves to be carried away by caprice, or by disgust, to make these sudden renunciations of the world, it is not long, at your time of life, before they repent, and return to the world from the necessity of returning to it."—"Sir, I assure you, it is impossible to *work out our salvation* in the world."—"Whence comes this idea, Madam? Do you condemn to eternal damnation all those whom their circumstances and condition retain in the world. God requires of us only the exact observance of such duties as the situation, in which we are placed by his will, prescribes to us. Before we do more than he exacts, let us fulfil precisely what he does exact: without which we shall promise more than we shall perform. You will return to the world, you will abandon it again in honour of God, and you will not be in favour either with the one or with the other. When from sudden disgust we run into extremes, when we wish to live the life of a hermit, not from love of God but from hatred towards our fellow-creatures, the result is only to weaken the hope of real reconciliation between the Creator and the creature; and this often leads even to the

the total extinction of religion, in a mind to which it offers scarcely any longer the resource of expiation."—"I assure you, Sir, my return to God is sincere, and I trust that it will be durable. I have many reasons to desire that it may be so."—"I plainly perceive, Madam, that you wish to make a last resource of God. If we despise the world in quitting it for God, we may say in the same manner that we despise God when we quit him for the world; and this would inevitably befall you. Do you think, Madam, that this is the disposition which he expects from you? Do you believe that, when you have left *off* rouge, have taken up the Essays of *Nicolas* and laid aside those of *Montaigne*, and have closed your doors against good company, you will have no farther danger to encounter? You are mistaken. Temptations will pursue you to the foot of the altar. Devotion consists principally in the privation of things that are most agreeable to us, and that privation scarcely ever fails to embitter the mind."

"We entered minutely into the details of my situation with my husband. The Abbé said many sensible things, and such as would certainly have given me consolation, if the true cause of my suffering had been avowed. He suspected me of suppressing some circumstances, but I dared not acknowledge more. After a moment of silence, during which my countenance did not altogether please him, he suddenly said to me with an air of compassion, "But, Madam, I am astonished that, agreeing as you do with all that I have had the honour of addressing to you, still your mind remains a stranger to consolation: you are melancholy: may I venture to ask what is the cause of your sadness?"

"I told him, in the first place, that I was wearied with living among persons who were faithless and corrupt; and that frequently those very persons, in whom we deem it right to place the greatest confidence, are the most perfidious and least indulgent.—"But," said he, "the perfidy, inconsistency, and intolerance of men, are as old as the world; we should be prepared for such discoveries. Once for all, let me say that this is not the motive of which God avails himself to reclaim a soul. The treachery of friends, Madam, inspires distrust, and not devotion. We are inclined in consequence to hate our species: but do you imagine that we love God the more?"

"My heart felt wounded, my tears flowed fast, and I had not self-command enough to conceal my emotion. I hid my face with my hands; I wished to speak: but I could not. M. Martin pitied my state of mind, and assured me that, if I had any secret trouble, for which he could offer me consolation, he was not unworthy of my confidence, and I might securely tell him what I felt. I then avowed to him that my excessive loathing of the world was occasioned only by the loss of the heart of a friend, to whom I had made every sacrifice; and I represented to him the solitude of my soul, the despair which overpowered me from time to time, and in a word the insupportable burthen of existence.

"I am no longer amazed, Madam," said M. Martin. "at your projects of reform, but have even less confidence than before in their solidity. You are in the situation of all good and unhappy women, who yet feel the necessity of loving something. God becomes the object of a sensibility which cannot remain inactive, and the bad success of a determination so lightly made is a just punishment for the frivolous motives which have excited this profanation. In the meanwhile, the pretended conversion is noised abroad, and its motive becomes better known. Such a reform is calculated only to scandalize the world without producing any advantage; for the *soi-disant* reformed person soon returns to society, and this is a shame and an absurdity which can be avoided only with great art and circumspection. The result would be to recall all the vanities which you have renounced; and then, Madam, you may calculate the immense distance which intervenes between yourself and God. For an upright, rational, and honourable woman like yourself, the better course would be to support the character that belongs to her situation. Are you convinced that you have so perfectly renounced the advantages of your situation in life, as never again to avail yourself of the occasions for sinning which it presents to you? Or are you decided on living a hypocritical life, which will never sit easily on you? The avowal that you have made in no respect alters the question. My advice is that you enter into no professions, but endeavour by moderate pleasure to calm the violent and contradictory emotions which originate in despair. If you are desirous of making your repentance agreeable to God, it must be sincere; and it is only in a state of calmness that we can judge soundly of our dispositions. I will not even, for the present, permit you to partake of the holy ordinances. I discover more disgust than remorse in your expressions. Employ yourself first, Madam, with the real duties of your situation; draw up the plan of a new mode of life, which shall include the care of your mother, the education of your children, and continual vigilance over the interests of your husband: let your reform begin from these duties; and then, if in a few years you persist in the desire to attain the perfection of a devout life, I will have the honour of paying you a second visit."

Soon after this interview with M. Martin, the fair penitent discovers that his views were correct, and that she more than ever adores *Francueil*;—and nothing less than the interposition of the mighty *Grimm*, who triumphs over all competitors, is able to liberate her from the slavery of her first affection. At this point of her history, we are re-introduced to *Duclos*, to *Rousseau*, to *Mademoiselle Quinault*, and to some half-dozen more of amiable and agreeable libertines, all of whom have lived and continue to live in exact conformity with the ethics of their school. At one time, Emily is a guest at the joyous suppers of *Mademoiselle Quinault*, and

listens

listens to a discussion of the distinctions between shame and modesty, which necessarily implies a complete abandonment of those virtues in the convivial disputants: at another time, the existence of a God is denied and defended with equal levity; at another, she is at the bed-side of a dying sister-in-law, whose last words and actions imply a wish that the cabinet containing her love-letters may be opened, and emptied of its contents, lest they should disquiet her husband; and at another she encounters the brutality of *Duclos*, whom she dismisses from her presence, and indulges in her triumph over *Francueil*, whom she abandons for the victorious *Grimm*. About this period, and in a state of preparation for the subject such as we have described, she forms the design of composing a work containing precepts and lessons of morality for the use of her children; and thus, by her writings and her conduct, she furnished them with a bane and an antidote at the same time.

As we are transgressing the limits to which we usually restrict ourselves, we will not enter on the discussions contained in this book respecting the character and conduct of *Rousseau*; whose history, intimately interwoven with that of *Madame d'Epinay*, has for many years been before the world. In common with the illustrious characters of the eighteenth century, and with the members of the whole dynasty of *philosophes*, he appears to have mistaken a hot head for a warm heart; and hence, while as a writer he burned the paper on which he recorded his ideas, as a man and as a father he violated the most endearing and tender duties. What imports it to us to decide between an adulteress and a man who sent his children to the Foundling Hospital? Such examples as these, among the great and the literary, were the signs and wonders of the times.

“ *Hoc fonte derivata clades
In patriam populumque fluxit.*”

A general licentiousness in the nobles, and the monopoly “of the kindly fruits of the earth” by the proprietors of land, admirably described by *Madame d'Epinay* in a letter to the *Abbé Galiani*, first induced the people to compare their strength with that of their superiors; and hence the Revolution, and its consequences of temporary misery to France and of permanent disaster to England. The noblesse of France have been punished, and the result has been the present insignificance of their order, but the comfort and growing importance of the virtuous and hardy peasantry of that nation; virtuous because they are comfortable, and comfortable because

because they are proprietors, and have "a local habitation and a name." Let those, who doubt the good effects of property on the character of the labouring classes, read the report of M. Laine, not long ago presented to the French Commons; whence it will appear that, in the years 1816 and 1817, (the most trying that have been known in France since the Revolution,) the number of crimes in that country was very small, when compared with our portentous domestic calendar. Yet these were years of utter disorganization in France. With this melancholy comparison before our eyes, prisons and work-houses are every where enlarged; the character of the people is changing from bad to worse; and, while monopoly pursues its course among the affluent, the cry is "*Bibles*," and "*yet more Bibles*," for the famished and degraded labourers.

With a King who has ever been a model of domestic virtue, with a constitution so excellent as to have appeared to Tacitus a theoretical and visionary blessing, with the liberty of the press unshaken, and the Habeas Corpus act restored at least for a breathing time, with extensive commerce and flourishing agriculture, England is at this time the country in which misery and vice are perhaps most widely diffused: for no where is the "*ascriptio glebæ*" more complete to the labourer, and no where are the labourer and manufacturer more unequivocally at the mercy of their employers. This was the case in France when Madame d'Epinay predicted the result; and her letter on monopoly, and its consequences to the labourers, appears to be written by anticipation of the present state of things among ourselves.

A short notice is added at the end of this work, informing us that Madame d'Epinay passed the last twenty years of her life in the society of a very small number of friends, who are all brought on the stage in *Grimm's Correspondence*; that she occupied her time in diffusing the *agréments* of her talents among this chosen few, and in the education of her children, who seem to have attracted her attention as age advanced and converted her *lover* into a *friend*; and that she lived in the enjoyment of this easy system until the day of her death, the 17th of April, 1783.

The Correspondence of the Abbé Galiani, so much connected with the *côterie* of Madame d'Epinay, has also been published, and will engage our attention in a future article.

ART. XI. *Histoire de France, &c.*; i.e. A History of France during the Wars of Religion; by CHARLES LACRETELLE, Member of the Institute, and Professor of History in the Academy of Paris. 4 Vols. 8vo. Paris.

THE writing of history has long been a task of proverbial difficulty; and this difficulty has considerably increased in recent times, since political transactions have acquired so much complexity, and the range of research incumbent on the historian has been so materially extended. The French of a former age laid claim to a superiority in this high department of literary labour: but our Gallic neighbours of the present day would find themselves embarrassed to produce names equal to those of the three historians who illustrated our literature in the latter half of the 18th century; — and, if any doubt yet remained, as to whom the superiority belonged, the detection of almost countless errors in *Voltaire* would bring the question to a decision, by depriving them of one of their most vaunted supports. On the other hand, the French may now boast of possessing an auxiliary of no mean repute in M. LACRETELLE; whose name has long been known as a historical writer in France and Germany, and is by no means new to the reading part of our countrymen. This gentleman, having followed a literary course from his early years, made his first appeals to the public through the medium of a series of news-paper essays, written in a style of unusual eloquence and liberality, in 1796 and 1797: but the unfortunate reaction of the 18th of Fructidor (4th of September) 1797, having placed the government in tyrannical hands, he was for a time bereft of his personal liberty, and obliged to turn his thoughts to a species of literary labour less exposed to alarming interruption. He now composed a *Précis de la Révolution Française*, in continuation of the valuable fragment of *Rabaud de St. Etienne*, and extended it from time to time by narratives of the reign of the Directory and the earlier years of *Bonaparte*. Encouraged by the extensive circulation of this work, he published, some time afterward, a “History of France during the 18th Century;” and, becoming more and more desirous of relating events when the lapse of time had smoothed the edge of party and facilitated calm discussion, he has lately been occupied in the historical sketch now under review. ‘I felt,’ he says, ‘all the delicacy and difficulty of continuing the delineation of events so near to our own days; and I sought a subject which, offering in itself a great share of interest and unity, was calculated to bring aid to the weakness of the writer, and to support his

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efforts to give to modern history that animation of which the antients have left us such striking and inimitable models.'

The time comprized in the present history is somewhat more than half a century, beginning from the death of Francis I. in 1547, and continuing to that of Henry IV. in 1610. The introductory chapter may be called a brief imitation of the well-known preliminary volume of Robertson's Charles V.; to which, more than to any other part of his writings, that historian is indebted for his reputation on the continent. M. LACRETELLE, without enlarging on the situation of the other great members of the European commonwealth, exhibits a brief but animated picture of France during the first part of the 16th century, and particularly under the reign of the chivalrous Francis. We extract the passage relative to the introduction of females at the French court, and the abuse to which a practice, productive at first of good effects, became exposed in the hands of a young and unthinking prince.

'The introduction of ladies at court was an event of great importance with regard to our manners, and even to our political constitution. This pleasing change afforded an inducement to country-gentlemen to quit their retirement, and had more influence in curbing their pride than all the artful despotism of Louis XIth. Anne of Bretagne was surrounded by ladies, who, like herself, were distinguished for goodness of heart and purity of conduct. Francis I., young and affable, added considerably to the attractions of the court. The French had long been accustomed to make a jest of conjugal infidelity; it was the constant topic of their songs and romances: but this mischievous pleasantry was supposed to have little foundation in real life. With Francis began the reign of royal mistresses: but, both by him and by others equally culpable, the respect due to society was carefully observed. Gentlemen affected a blind obedience to the ladies of their choice; and all sought to veil the declaration of their passion so ingeniously, that delicacy and modesty could have no cause for alarm. Hence even the age of Louis XIVth produced nothing more artless, graceful, and delicate, than the poetry of *Clement Marot*, or of Francis himself.'

The reign of Francis I. was coincident with the rise and progress of the Reformation, and that prince is supposed to have been by no means adverse to the tenets of the Protestants. His political difficulties obliged him, however, to court the support of the Pope, and to lose an excellent opportunity of giving to his subjects the benefit of the enlightened opinions which were embraced by their more fortunate neighbours. Scarcely a more interesting speculation can be found in history, than the probable consequences of the adoption of the reformed

reformed faith by the sovereign of so populous a country as France. It would, to all appearance, have prevented the long series of civil struggles which ensued; and, by diffusing a spirit of free inquiry, it would have awakened the public mind in France to the folly of foreign wars. The ambition of Louis XIV. could not then have been so blindly gratified; nor the blood and treasure of Frenchmen lavished in conflicts in which, as a nation, they felt no interest. Things were, however, destined to take a very different course; and the middle of the 16th century was sullied by an act of unprecedented barbarity against an insulated settlement of unoffending sectaries.

' *The Vaudois, or Waldenses.*— *Valdo, or Waldo*, an inhabitant of Lyons, having founded a sect in the 13th century, was persecuted; and his humble followers, who bore the name of *Vaudois*, sought refuge among the mountains which separate Dauphiny from Piedmont. It was in cultivating the most barren soil of the kingdom that these exiles experienced the hospitality of some gentlemen, in whom the voice of pity had suspended the prevailing prejudices against heretics. This peaceable colony was sheltered here during two centuries from all persecution:—it was poor; and consisted of very limited numbers. The court of Rome, however, informed of the existence of these Vaudois, suspected them of execrating her in their private meetings, where they read and interpreted the Scriptures according to the creed of their forefathers; and she consequently endeavoured to excite Louis XII. against them. This excellent monarch, having made inquiry not about the articles of their creed, but about their moral conduct, declared, "they are better Christians than we are;" stopped the proceedings commenced against them; and cheerfully confirmed them in their little patrimony, which had been already confiscated. What was the astonishment of these peasants, when they heard, some time afterward, that the opinions to which their ancestors had fallen martyrs, and of which they deemed themselves the only depositories, had found powerful protectors in Germany, and even some partizans in France! They rejoiced, but their joy was un-mixed with pride; and their pastors yielded to the solicitations of the Protestant ministers in Switzerland, who were anxious to conclude with them a sort of treaty of union, less for the purpose of increasing the adherents to the reformed religion, than for that of establishing the early date of its doctrines. This act was made known to Francis I.: but, though firmly resolved to maintain the Catholic religion, he could not determine to treat a simple and laborious peasantry as rebels. A cruel edict, which the parliament of Aix had pronounced against the *Vaudois*, remained consequently without effect: but the time came when the political embarrassments of Francis made him a passive if not a willing agent in religious persecution. Violent men sought to drag him into measures suggested by their blind and barbarous zeal;—at the

the head of whom was *Meynier*, Baron *d'Oppede*; who, by a dangerous abuse, united the functions of first president of the Parliament of Aix to those of military lieutenant of Provence. This man had a cruel heart; and he shewed it equally when he pronounced a sentence of death and when he witnessed its execution. He had sought in marriage the Countess of *Cental*, a rich widow who added an amiable disposition to great beauty. This lady owed a rapid increase of fortune to the care which she had taken to collect on her estate the industrious *Vaudois*, who left no uncultivated spots around them; and, respected at court, she willingly lent her support to these peasants, the only heretics who were not innovators. She had seen enough of the character of the Baron *d'Oppede* to make her tremble for her vassals. She refused his hand: he swore to be revenged; and a frightful massacre was the result of his threat. To the charges already made against the *Vaudois*, he added others invented or combined with deep dissimulation. According to the reports which he addressed to government, these people were forming themselves into petty republics, on the example of those Swiss Cantons whose errors they partook, and with whom they maintained a treasonable correspondence: "They hold meetings," said this virulent accuser; "they exercise their youth in arms; they are ripe for insurrection." Unfortunately, several fanatical and artful men in office supported these assertions. Francis heard them, but was undetermined how to act. The court of Rome threatened; and still the King delayed his decision. "Let us anticipate the orders of the court," said the Baron *d'Oppede* to the Parliament of Aix: "we have the power to do it, and it is our duty, since religion prescribes it." A levy of men having been ordered by government in Provence to serve against foreign enemies, he directed it to be led against the *Vaudois*; and the Commander of these new troops resigned them to the orders of *Oppede*, who did not want followers even among the magistrates. The territory inhabited by the *Vaudois* was invested, and the men who had been declared ripe for revolt fled before a handful of soldiers. They arrived at length at the foot of the mountains of Piedmont, fatigued and out of breath, and climbed the rocks which were to separate them from the French territory. While ascending, they perceived fires kindled on the summit; and a Piedmontese soldier, yielding to the impulse of pity, called out: "Do not advance, unhappy men! or you will be lost." They then descended the mountains, and endeavoured to disperse: but the soldiers of *D'Oppede* came up, after having made their houses, barns, and orchards, a prey to the flames. Many of the inhabitants were now sacrificed, and others were arrested and sent to the galleys. More than 4000 lives were lost, 28 hamlets were burned, and the whole settlement destroyed. *D'Oppede* was brought to trial, before judges who were weak and partial; and was acquitted: but the justice of heaven made up for the iniquity of men, and he was carried off soon afterward by a violent illness.

Francis was succeeded in 1547 by his son Henry II., whose reign lasted twelve years, and was chiefly remarkable
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for renewed hostilities with the house of Austria. The most brilliant exploit during this contest was the defence of Metz against Charles V., in which the first Duke of *Guise* laid the basis of that high reputation which afterward enabled him to absorb so large a share of the regal authority. At last, at the peace of Cateau Cambresis in 1558, a state of hostility, which had existed between France and Spain for half a century, was exchanged for a tacit compact to exert their joint efforts against the growing progress of the Reformation. In 1560, the crown of France devolved on Charles IX., who being then a mere boy, the executive power was shared between the Queen-mother, Catherine of Medicis, and the two brothers of the house of *Guise*. The great cause of national division now lay in the state of religious feelings. The Protestants were too independent to be reduced to servile acquiescence; and the Catholics were too conscious of superior strength to tolerate the idea of admitting them to a state of equality. The public tranquillity could not be long preserved: but the first bloodshed took place accidentally in 1562 at Vassy, a small town in Champagne, where the Duke of *Guise* happening to pass, his escort insulted a congregation of Protestants assembled at their devotion. The latter repelled them with stones; and the Duke, in attempting to quell the tumult, received a hurt in the face, on which his enraged attendants drew their swords, and killed or wounded several hundreds of their opponents. The flame of civil war being now kindled throughout the kingdom, each party called in foreign aid. Spain, Savoy, and the Pope assisted the Catholics; while England and the Protestant Princes of Germany afforded help to their antagonists. The course of operations, at first favourable to the Protestants, was soon rendered adverse to them by the talents of the Duke of *Guise*, who defeated them in a pitched battle near Dreux in Normandy. The siege of Orleans was the next important object with the Duke; and the fall of that city seemed inevitable, when this gallant but ambitious commander fell a victim to the hand of an assassin. The Catholics, disconcerted by the loss of their chief, became disposed to terms of accommodation; and hostilities were suspended in 1563, on a mutual agreement to send back the foreign troops, and to grant the Protestants the free exercise of their worship on their surrendering to the crown their fortified towns and other strong holds.

In a time replete with so much rancour and cruelty, it is a gratification to dwell for a moment on a character that would

would have done honour to the most civilized period in the history of society.

Chancellor de l'Hôpital. — 'The birth of *Michel de l'Hôpital*, far from opening the path of promotion, seemed to close it to him for ever. His father was a medical man, who was attached to the Constable of Bourbon, and had followed him in his flight. *Michel* from his youth had given promise of talents, which were early cultivated by his father, and were afterward unfolded in the first Universities of Italy. His rare endowments seemed to render any career easy to him, and he attracted attention as a poet, an orator, a lawyer, and a statesman. The brilliancy of his genius and the energy of his mind gave a manly character to the first effusions of his youth. A thirst for fame, and the love of his country, brought him back to France; and his first appearance at the bar was so splendid, that it was in vain that the envious reproached him with being the son of an outlaw. Francis I. was not inattentive to the merits of a youth so deserving of a place among the literati, the lawyers, and the poets whom he collected around him; and *De l'Hôpital* was made a Counsellor of the Parliament of Paris. Though young, he was rigid in correcting the abuses prevalent at that time among men in office. The ferocious zeal which several of his professional brethren shewed against the Protestants disgusted him; and, wearied with unavailing attempts to snatch victims from their hands, he sought an employment less painful to his feelings. Henry II. appointed him president of the chamber of accounts, and soon afterward a privy-councillor. Catherine of Medicis supposed that she should find in him a man who, from his unexpected elevation, would devote himself entirely to her interests, and would oppose a barrier to the ambition of the *Guises*: while the Cardinal of Lorraine, proud of having been his first patron, gave a ready approval to the choice of the Queen-mother, and hoped to make him useful in the prosecution of his plans: — but *De l'Hôpital*, when named Chancellor of France, did not consider whether he owed most to the *Guises* or to the Queen-mother; he remembered only what he owed to humanity, to the laws, and to his country. Accustomed as we now are to the maxims of religious toleration, we can scarcely imagine the difficulty experienced in the 16th century in conciliating such principles, with the authority either of government or of the established church. At the same time, it cannot be doubted that the common feelings of humanity made many wise and good men in those times desire the abolition of cruel punishments; and some upright magistrates ventured even to express a wish to that effect. *De l'Hôpital* gave a strong proof of the elevation of his mind, by a course of conduct which served to unite all parts of the legislation. That the King might be able to conciliate his divided subjects, he aimed at rendering him their common benefactor. Too sure in the first instance of not being understood by superstitious people, and equally certain of having to contend with base passions which would assume the mask of religious zeal, he took a determination never to relax in his efforts, and to allow no influence to divert him from his object.'

The pacific councils of *De l'Hôpital*, however, were supported by his cotemporaries, and every thing in the conduct of the court and the state of parties foreboded a renewal of war. When the measures of government appeared to threaten the Protestants, their leaders, *Condé* and *Coligni*, made vehement remonstrances; and, if these measures seemed calculated to favour the Protestants, *Guise* and *Montmorenci* uttered loud complaints. The peace consequent on the treaty of 1563 continued during four years: but the Protestants suspected that the interval was far from being lost on the part of their opponents; and in particular they gave a sinister interpretation to the conferences held at Bayonne, between the Queen-mother, Catherine of Medicis, and the well-known Duke of *Alva*, the tyrant of the Netherlands. The second civil war broke out in 1567, by a spirited but unsuccessful attempt, on the part of the Protestants, to get possession of the person of the young King. Not discouraged by their failure, this active and enterprising party advanced, with a slender army, to the neighbourhood of Paris, fought a battle at St. Denis, and, though enable to withstand their more numerous opponents in a general encounter, found means to excite resistance to them in various provinces of the east and west. After two years of hostility, the peace of Longjumeau was made, on terms nearly similar to those of the first treaty, but intended, on the part of the court, as a mere suspension of hostilities; and the insincerity of Catherine was soon evinced by a scheme to seize the persons of *Condé* and *Coligni*, on the failure of which no plan remained but an open recourse to military operations. In the battle of Jarnac, the courage of the Protestants proved inadequate to resist the superior number of their antagonists: but their fortitude in withstanding sieges, and their activity in traversing the provinces, relieved them from the effects both of this defeat and of a second, which was sustained in the plains of Moncontour. In 1570, they obtained some successes in Burgundy; and the court, having now finally determined to exchange open oppression for a more insidious course, made no scruple in concluding with them in that year a third pacification, by virtue of which they were allowed not only the free exercise of their worship but the retention of several important strong holds; concessions which were designed merely to inspire a delusive confidence.

The wayward policy and still more the wayward temper of Catherine rendered nugatory even the wise advice which she received from *Michel de l'Hôpital*; she placed confidence in no one, and seemed to trust to nothing but the discord which she herself created.

created. An air of frivolity, or even of gaiety, seemed to pervade the beginning of one of the most bloody wars which history records. To the chaste and dignified manners of the court of Louis XII. and Anne of Bretagne;—to the less scrupulous but lively gallantry of Francis I.;—to the respectful habits by which Henry II. dignified his homage to Diana of Poitiers;—succeeded a series of amours shamefully transient, and in which, to complete the scandal, the interests of religion were intermingled. Catherine encouraged these proceedings, and formed out of them a school of *espionage*: her ladies of honour, whom she made a point of having both clever and handsome, were instructed to captivate the King of Navarre, the Prince of Condé, the Duke of Guise, and in short every nobleman who seemed accessible to this kind of seduction; and Coligni was almost the only individual who resisted it. The most treacherous councils were given from lips professing the purest affection, and the ground of future impeachment was laid in the bosom of pleasure. In point of religion, the fashion at court was to imitate the indecision which the Queen affected on all matters of faith. It is to be presumed that she felt, at the bottom of her heart, that Italian incredulity of the 16th century, which denied the existence of all moral obligation and even of a divine being: but it suited her purpose to appear sceptical only in certain points of doctrine.

Catherine had the most elegant court in Europe; for, on occasions when circumstances forbade her from indulging in magnificence, she supplied the want of it by her talents and able management. When about to give an entertainment on the eve of or immediately after some unfortunate event, she acquitted herself as cheerfully as if all was going on prosperously; and the greater her dislike to particular individuals, the greater was the attention which she lavished on them. She increased the number of her maids of honour to one hundred and fifty; and several of these young ladies were of illustrious families, though many of them had no other claim to her choice than their beauty and attractive manners. They danced with infinite grace in ballets composed by the Queen: they performed little operas and plays; and they figured in pantomimes which they composed themselves, taking for their subjects different episodes of Ariosto and Boiardo. The Queen was a remarkably good rider, and her maids of honour, following in her train, exhibited a brilliant cavalcade: they were even accustomed to run the ring, and to perform a variety of evolutions in their hunting parties:—but a taste for these masculine exercises did not prevent them from meditating on the topics of love, religion, and politics. The court of Catherine partook at the same time of Amadis de Gaul and of Machiavel. A romance which paints in the most artless and pleasing manner the imaginary perfection of chivalry, and a book in which the lessons of political depravity are given with unblushing assurance, were there held in equal estimation. While it professed to abhor heretics, the court was in the constant habit of consulting astrologers; and the most respectable among the maids of honour were those who yielded to a sincere

attachment under promises of marriage, which were not eventually kept : the rest had intrigues without affection, and acted generally under the direction of the Queen.'

France now enjoyed tranquillity during two years ; an interval passed by Catherine and her deceitful son in attempts to gain the confidence of the Protestants, and to allure their chiefs within the walls of Paris. With this view, young Henry of Navarre (afterward Henry IV.) was united in marriage with a sister of the King, and a pretended plan of operations in defence of the Protestants of Holland became the ostensible object of disunion at court. Nothing short of this scheme could have disarmed the suspicions of *Coligni* ; whose ardour kindled at the hope of rendering his countrymen instrumental in asserting the free exercise of the reformed worship. After his arrival at Paris, he was daily employed in arranging with the minister the plan of the campaign ; and his son-in-law, the young and amiable *Teligni*, was invited to partake familiarly of the juvenile amusements of the King. At last came the celebrated *Massacre of St. Bartholomew* : on the fatal night of the 24th of August (1572), the signal was given by the midnight *tocsin* ; and the slaughter, commencing with the veteran *Coligni*, soon spread over the streets of Paris. The mind turns with horror from the scene, and is impatient to seek relief in recording an instance of escape from this dreadful accumulation of murder.

' Amid these long continued horrors, we find only one example of a generous enemy. *Vesins*, a man of family in Gascony, had a mortal difference with a gentleman of his neighbourhood, named *Regnier* ; the former was a Catholic, the latter a Protestant ; and both were in Paris at the time of the massacre. *Vesins* entered the house of his enemy, followed by several armed persons. " Cruel man," said *Regnier* to him, " it was you that I expected ; avail yourself of a moment so favourable to give effect to your resentment ; I have commended my soul to God ; advance and strike the blow." *Vesins* said in answer, " Follow me, and mount the horse which I have brought for you : " *Regnier*, surprized, but not tranquillized, did as he desired. *Vesins* had received from the King an order to go to Cahors ; he made *Regnier* pass for one of his suite, withdrew him thus from the capital, and travelled with him above 300 miles without an explanation. *Regnier*, more and more disquieted, saw himself brought to the vicinity of his own *chateau* ; and, as they drew near to the avenue, *Vesins* stopped short : " It is time," said he to his antagonist, " to bring your uncertainty to a close. — You have given me cause of offence ; and satisfaction is to be received by me, not as an assassin but as a man of honour. Now that you are in security, and near your castle, we can settle our differences ; the opportunity

opportunity is in your hands."—"What I, my dear *Vesins*," replied *Regnier*, "could I commit such an abuse of your generosity! Is it possible that I could still see an enemy in my deliverer? Complete your kindness by bestowing on me your friendship." He then endeavoured to throw himself into his arms: but *Vesins*, while he proved himself magnanimous, chose to appear unfeeling, and only replied, "All that I ask of you is to acknowledge that you had formed a wrong estimate of my character." On saying these words, he made off at full speed.

This frightful massacre was so far from producing the effect expected by the court, that it was a signal for all the Protestants in France to arm, and to rouse all their brethren in Europe to their support. On the other hand, it increased among the bigoted Catholics the dangerous influence of Henry of *Guise*, son of the first Duke, who had been the main instrument in the direction of the massacre. Charles IX., under whose sanction it had been perpetrated, was cut off in 1574 in the flower of youth, by the effects of intemperance, and amid the torments of remorse. His brother, Henry III., educated in the same school of perfidy, did not scruple to make, in 1576, a treaty with the Protestants; by which he affected to guarantee to them the free exercise of their religion, and an unreserved participation in civil rights: completing the whole by an absolute disavowal of the dreadful day of St. Bartholomew, and by a reversal of all the legislative acts consequent on the massacre. The fanatical part of the Catholics now deemed it high time to withdraw their confidence from so suspected a master, and formed themselves into a body which, under the name of "*The League*," proved during many years the scourge of their country. The members of this association were extremely numerous, including princes, noblemen, generals, prelates, in short all who were actuated by the blind superstition of the age. The main support of the league was the bigoted Philip II.; and its executive head, Henry Duke of *Guise*.

The splendid qualities and even the vices of his character contributed to render Henry of *Guise* the powerful head of a party. His person was tall, his carriage easy and dignified, and his regular features shone with all the brilliancy of manly beauty. He displayed equal vigour and skill in all gymnastic exercises. Although an adept in the art of dissimulation, his eyes, full of fire, seemed to convey a candid expression of either friendship or hatred; and, even when exciting discord, he preserved the appearance of a conciliator, or the superiority of an arbiter. His pride was concealed by the graceful vivacity of his manners. In constituting himself the champion of religion, he affected no devotion but that of a knight and a soldier; while he acknowledged

himself to be vindictive, and called revenge the attribute of a noble mind. This murderer of *Coligni* appeared insensible to the magnitude of his crime. No repose was allowed to any man who had offended the Duke of *Guise* : but his memory was as tenacious of services as of injuries ; and his gifts, though conferred for the interest of his ambition, appeared always scattered with an easy bounty. No warrior in Christendom acquired so much fame for any exploit as he gained for his defence of Poitiers, or the victory of Dormans ; and, the King of Navarre having as yet only begun to shew himself, the palm of bravery was given to the Duke of *Guise*. His elocution united strength and brilliancy ; while the depth of his passions, and the activity of his mind, caused him to reject as well pedantic ornaments as the childish *jeux d'esprit* which corrupted the eloquence of his age. He listened to others with attention, yet always followed his own opinion ; he marched like a monarch at the head of the princes of his house ; and they, being all remarkable for their comeliness, seemed at the court of France to be the reigning family. Such was the appearance of Henry Duke of *Guise* : but, when we follow him in the course of his factious enterprises, we shall often find him irresolute, and never shall we be able to ascribe this irresolution to scrupulous feelings.

Henry III., with his characteristic versatility, soon forgot the obligations of the treaty which he had lately contracted with the Protestants, and the war was once more renewed. Several years passed without a pitched battle, but the extent of local suffering and the loss in desultory warfare were very great. The march of a hostile band through the country was in those days a much greater calamity than at present, the officers and soldiers receiving no regular pay, and accounting it no crime to extort property of every description from the inhabitants of an adverse district. Even the virtuous *Sully* records, without any sense of impropriety, that his share of the plunder on one occasion amounted to 1500 and on another to 2000 crowns, and the ransom of prisoners was altogether a matter of traffic.

[To be continued.]

ART. XII. *Les Parvenus*, &c.; i.e. *The Upstarts*, or the Adventures of Julien Delmours, written by himself. By the Countess DE GENLIS. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1819. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 11.

WITH the fair author of this novel the literary world of Europe has long been made acquainted, by various books and romances of education, which have circulated widely, if they have evaporated easily. She continues to assert the power of amuse-

ing, rather than of attaching, and will no doubt obtain for *Julien Delmours* that fashionable perusal which makes one genteel rapid visit, but without repeating the call. The fable of the piece is intertwined with the course of the French revolution; and the hero, born of a confectioner's wife, becomes the rival of noblemen, weds a Marchioness, and marries his sister to a Duke. Whatever changes of fortune and condition take place among the personages of the epopea, they are accomplished by some one of those political crises which expelled, plundered, or murdered the antient nobility, and made a scramble of their spoil among the vulgar and the free. We cannot stay to give the minute analysis of a story which employs a period of more than thirty years; which is certainly complex and intricate, without having much design or purpose; which abounds with personages more than with incidents; and which offers so many successive objects of attention, that no great anxiety of interest is excited by any one, and least of all by the truly plebeian, patient, prudent, cool, sensible, and selfish *Julien Delmours*, the hero.

We translate a striking episode from the second volume :

‘ The Abbé told me that he was to go in the evening and visit one of the Septemberizing assassins; who was dying, and, according to his wife's account, had given some signs of a repentance which she hoped might be turned to his everlasting advantage. I would fain have persuaded the Abbé not to go into the house of such a wretch, lest some snare should be laid for him: but, as he persisted, I begged him at least to take me with him, and I put in my pocket a brace of loaded pistols: carrying moreover in my hand a stout sword-cane. The hour of ten was striking when we knocked at the door of an old house in the street Gerard-boquet. We immediately heard the sound of a woman's slippers, who seemed to be lame by the shuffling slowness with which she approached; and presently we were ushered in by a female of hideous figure, who lighted us with a lantern along a narrow alley, and then up a remote stair-case into a third story. The room which we entered was strangely furnished; the window was mended with paper, and some of the utensils were of the most ordinary kind: but a mahogany table stood in a corner, covered with Sevre porcelaine, and a brilliant *pendule* in a glass-case ornamented the mantle-piece of the chimney. I conjectured that these were stolen fragments of the confiscated property of emigrants. A young girl sat in a corner, weeping. This object gave me confidence, and I no longer suspected sinister intentions. “ Citizen-vicar,” said the lame woman to me, “ stay here; citizen-curate, do you follow me,” said she to the Abbé, and led him to the door of a room behind: but, as I had attended in order to protect the Abbé in case of danger, I chose to proceed also. We then entered a large bed-chamber, in which a frightful object

object presented itself; — a tall lean dark man, unshaven, stretched on a low bedstead, and grinning as if in the agony of death. The whole expression of his figure was horrible: in the occasional fits of his rage he had flung away his night-cap, and his black ruffled hair seemed to stand upright on his head: while a bleeding at the nose, which he was endeavouring to staunch, and which reminded us of his crimes, had stained both his shirt and his arms. As if still employed in the massacres of September, he yet was bathed in blood. His wife announced the citizen-curate. He shuddered. "Go back again," said he, "there can be no mercy for me: with these hands I helped to slay ninety priests." — "Son," replied the Abbé, "thank God that he has preserved one to give you absolution." By this sublime answer, the irritation of the monster was soothed, his arm relapsed gently on the sheets, his physiognomy softened, his eyes were filled with tears, and he ventured to raise them towards heaven. The holy Abbé, a worthy minister of the God of clemency and peace, threw himself on the couch of this wretch, took him in his arms, pressed him to his bosom, and by the tenderest exhortations called down from heaven into his scared conscience the feelings of repentance and hope. On a sudden, the dying man joined his hands, shut his eyes, and appeared to pray with the most ardent fervour, while tears flooded his cheeks. I saw that he was going to confess, and withdrew into the other apartment. In half an hour, the Abbé came back to me, pressed my hand, and said with an emphatic tone that he was contented. "Admire," added he, "the Divine mercy. If this unfortunate should recover his health, man will always be inexorable towards him; but a few minutes have sufficed to reconcile him with God. There are crimes which nothing expiates below, but which a moment of contrition can wipe away in heaven." We left the house at midnight; and glad I was to find myself in the street, with the good Abbé, safe and sound.'

This anecdote, the Countess assures us in a note, is a real fact. So much the worse! How should the influence of a religion be otherwise than pernicious, in which persons are taught to believe that they may atone for long habits of criminality by a short-lived death-bed ceremonial, by a gush of tears, or a mouthful of wafer? It is by fixing the hope of salvation on something else than confirmed habits of moral utility, that the Catholic religion has so generally educated a profligate, undisciplined, dangerous, and intolerant populace. Unless the religion of the multitude can be changed, France will be but little regenerated by the Revolution; and it becomes the instructed classes to exact of the Romish priesthood, every where, some approximations to Scripture and to common sense.

MADAME DE GENLIS may be compared with Mrs. Hannah More for a jealous orthodoxy of profession, for placing the religion

religion of the genteel world in a certain intolerance of temper towards all those who differ from the established clergy, and for treating piety rather as a matter of fashion and decorum than as the natural growth of every grateful and feeling heart. She is, however, inferior to Mrs. More in the art of inculcating that principled value for feminine purity which is the ornament of the wife, and the surest pledge of domestic felicity: many of the numerous heroines in this novel passing unrebuked through very exceptionable processes.

ART. XIII. *Voyage fait en 1813, et 1814, &c. ; i. e.* Travels during the Years 1813, and 1814, in the District between the Meuse and the Rhine; with Notes and a Map of the Country. 8vo. pp. 388. Paris. 1818. London, Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 8s.

THIS is not the journal of a traveller, but a collection of topographical and other statistical matter, made by a French gentleman resident in the country and at the time mentioned in the title-page. So little is said about politics and so much about trade, agriculture, past history, and other topics which are open to discussion under any form of government, that we are rather surprized that the author should not have given his name to the public; Frenchmen being in general abundantly communicative in this respect.

The country between the Meuse and the Rhine is an irregular triangle, having its *apex* in the north near Nimeguen, and the towns of Aix la Chapelle and Bonn near the respective angles of its base. When subject to the French, it was called the department of the Roer, from the river of that name which rises in its southern extremity, and falls, after a course of 90 miles, into the Meuse at Roermonde. In the south portion of the department are a few hills and forests: but the rest of the country is level, and the greatest part of it, especially in the neighbourhood of Juliers, extremely fertile. The population is thick, and amounts to 700,000; of whom a large proportion are manufacturers, the country being equally rich in minerals and in the products of the surface of the soil. Iron and lead are found in abundance, and flax is extensively cultivated, so that there is no want of materials for either the hardware or the linen-manufactures; while woollens and even silk are made in large quantities in different parts of that province. Continental manufacturers are in general visibly behind the English in the application of machinery.

machinery: but those of this department are said to be no strangers to the late chemical discoveries, and to the use of the steam-engine. The two principal towns are Cologne and Aix la Chapelle, both well known in the history of Europe, and the former a place of considerable resort for the navigation of the Rhine.

After these general communications, the writer enters into a variety of local details, such as a description of the country around Juliers, Neuss, Cleves, Wesel, &c.; which may be both useful and interesting to travellers or to the inhabitants of the province, but evidently possesses little attraction for the general reader. To the latter, the most interesting passages are those in which (p. 247.) the author describes the measures adopted on the approach of the allied armies in January, 1814, — the zeal of the Prefect to prevent the inhabitants from suffering by their demonstrations of attachment to a lost cause, — and the regret of the people at the approaching change of masters. Many of *Bonaparte's* officers, civil as well as military, were worthy of serving a better cause; and, oppressive as were annual conscriptions and augmented taxes, the hardship of these was overlooked on the banks of the Meuse and the Rhine from a sense of the imbecility of the former government, and of the improvements which French activity had introduced in the administration of the country; clearing its remotest parts of banditti, encouraging the industry of the people, and opening a wide market for their produce and manufactures. These considerations still leave on the minds of the inhabitants some regret at their recent change; a feeling of which we are apprized from English travellers, and other sources, less doubtful than the report of this or any French writer. It is to be hoped, however, that the late sufferings of the people have been owing chiefly to the general stagnation of industry, attendant on a sudden change from war to peace; and that the Prussian government will open its eyes to a sound policy: permitting no insult to the feelings of the people, facilitating the efforts of peaceful industry, and lessening by degrees the pressure of an enormous military establishment. By such means only will it succeed in securing the attachment of the inhabitants of the country between the Meuse and the Rhine, and derive advantage from the fortunate resemblance of their language and customs, which approach much nearer to those of Germany than those of France.

In the latter part of the volume, (p. 351.) we have a curious example of the feebleness of the former government of this district. In 1792, several bands of robbers were
formed

formed on both sides of the Rhine, and extended the fame of their exploits from Strasburg to Holland. These resolute depredators did not always take refuge in forests or retired spots, but ventured to occupy villages; and at one time (1797) they actually placed themselves in a corner of the town of Neuwied, making it their head-quarters, and a point of departure for plundering excursions on both banks of the river. It was not until 1798 that a proper police and courts of justice were established: and a number of these desperadoes, being then arrested, were sentenced to perpetual imprisonment: but, having found means, after a labour of two years, to excavate an under-ground passage, they escaped from the hands of justice, and had the audacity to resume their former practices. A second pursuit now took place, and was followed by a second apprehension; the result of which was a compact between the local government and the court of Russia, followed by the transportation of the whole gang to the mines of Siberia.

ART. XIV. *Relation d'un Voyage, &c.; i. e. Account of recent Travels in the Provinces of La Plata, by L. C. With a Description of Buenos Ayres, &c.* 8vo. pp. 63. Paris. 1818. London, Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 2s. 6d.

THIS pamphlet describes the expedition of a Frenchman to Buenos Ayres, where his object was to obtain a situation in the army of independence: but he did not succeed according to his wishes, and returned with considerable disappointment. Such a state of mind is adapted to give a harsh and satirical colouring to any narrative, and may account for the incessant dispraise which pervades this relation. It is divided into twenty chapters. I. Cause of the undertaking. II. Voyage to the La Plata. III. Incident at Monte-Video. IV. Description of Buenos Ayres.

'The city,' says the author, 'stands on low ground, and has no gates; the streets intersect each other at right angles, and are unpaved: so that, in rainy weather, a person can scarcely cross a street without leaving a boot or two behind in the mud: while, in the dry season, an exquisitely fine and corrosive dust gives ophthalmia to the inhabitants, and blindness to strangers. Draught-cattle often perish in the streets, and lie to rot there, until insects and birds of prey gradually remove the nuisance. Skulls of oxen, with the horns on, form the favourite fence of gardens. The houses have in general only one story: they are built with bricks, for there are no stones in the country: but these bricks are so ill-burnt that they bear on the outside a croak

of vegetables, at which the goats tug so as to spoil the wall ; and within they bear a crop of mushrooms, which dry-rots all the wood-work in the house. A public walk, about a hundred paces long, is paved, or rather strewn, with bones of oxen ; the trophies of those slaughters which have founded the prosperity of Buenos Ayres. The shambles have been its support. Tigers come into the city, and lie down in the shops, as if they felt themselves among friends and brethren.'

V. Anecdotes of a French officer returned from Chili. VI. Treatment of strangers by the government of Buenos Ayres. VII. Manners of the inhabitants. VIII. Pampas Savages. IX. Soil and productions. X. On the system of independence. XI. Government. XII. Troops. XIII. Custom-houses. XIV. General reflections. XV. Departure. XVI. Tigers at Monte-Video. XVII. Troops of Artigas. XVIII. Colonia del Sacramento, and Maldonado. XIX. Administration of Brazil. XX. Return to France.

This publication is more amusing than trustworthy, since it evidently caricatures all that the author saw in South America. Still, many scattered observations occur with which those, who intend to visit these remote places, may be glad to meet. Most of the evils enumerated are such as are common to new countries, which naturally disappear with the condensation of populousness and the progress of civil government.

ART. XV. *Lettres inédites de Henri II., &c.; i. e.* Inedited Letters of Henry II., Diana of Poitiers, Mary Stuart, &c. &c. From a MS. in the Royal Library. By J. B. GAIL, Knight of the Legion of Honor, &c. 8vo. pp. 68. Paris. 1818. London, Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 5s.

M. GAIL is well known to literary men as the editor of the *Philologue*, a periodical publication which appears at Paris. Here the author has separated from that work some unpublished letters of Henry II. of France, Diana of Poitiers, Mary Stuart, Francis the Dauphin, and other eminent political characters of the same period : to which are attached translations into modern French, and notes justificatory and illustrative. The matter is in general not very interesting : but it throws light on several obscure points of history, and certainly deserved that minute perpetual commentary, and that industrious archæological research, which are every where displayed. The national antiquary is a highly useful literary character ; he contributes to attach a people to their soil ; and to

to found on interesting reminiscences of the past a lively patriotism in the living world.

An appendix of engraved autographs contributes to the curiosity and illustration of this valuable pamphlet.

ART. XVI. *Athelwold et Clara, &c.*; i. e. Athelwold and Clara, or the Iron Mountain. By Madame BARTHÉLEMY HADOT. 12mo. 4 Vols. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 16s.

MADAME BARTHÉLEMY HADOT here represents the people of Sweden, in the fifteenth century, as having the manners and habits of the French in the nineteenth; the peasants breakfasting on wine, and celebrating all interesting events by a dance. Indeed, the present novel abounds with obvious improbabilities and puerile incidents. Those patriots, who hold discourse with the tyrant Christiern, display an imprudent reprobation of his conduct, which is neither natural nor useful while they are in his power; and, on the other hand, they have constant recourse to falsehoods when they wish to protect themselves, or to achieve any other purposes. Athelwold, who seems to have been intended by the writer for a noble character, has the meanness to conceal from Clara his engagement to Eudocia, (vol. i. p. 140.) 'lest, by losing her love, he should expose himself to her revenge:'—but Clara, though highly romantic, may be deemed a tolerably interesting personage.

ART. XVII. *Histoire et Procès complet du faux Dauphin, &c.*; i. e. The Life and Trial of the false Dauphin, with a Portrait. 8vo. pp. 128. Paris. 1818. Imported by Treuttel and Wurtz. Price 3s. 6d.

MATHURIN BRUNEAU, the pretended Dauphin, born 10 May, 1784, of poor parents at Vezins, in the department of Maine and Loire, became an orphan at seven years of age, and was taken into the house of his sister, who had married a maker of wooden shoes. This trade he learned of his brother-in-law: but, being idle and given to fibbing, he was turned adrift in the twelfth year of his age. He then went about begging, especially in those departments which partook of the insurrectionary spirit of La Vendée, and found means to pass for a son of Baron Vezins, who had emigrated. Under this title, he was kindly sheltered, clad, and fed by the Viscountess Turpin de Crissé, who then inhabited her castle of Angrie; and, even when she had detected the imposture, the good lady

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still suffered him to eat with the servants, and employed him to keep the pigs. At the age of sixteen, he enlisted or was pressed as a conscript into the French army; or, having been committed to some house of correction as a vagabond, he was suffered to go out on condition of his engaging in a colonial battalion. He was shipped accordingly for the West Indies, found means to desert at Norfolk in North America, and there exercised the trade of a baker, but finally returned to France in 1814. A sort of novel had then been recently published at Paris by the royalists, throwing out the strange idea that the Dauphin, son of Louis XVI., was not dead, but had been smuggled out of the Temple in a basket of dirty linen. This work was called *The Cemetery of the Magdalen*, that being the place in which the body of the royal martyr was deposited. It fell into the hands of *Mathurin Bruneau*, who, after having been assisted to read it by the Abbé *Matouillet*, determined to personate this supposed Dauphin, to relate the same story concerning his early years which had been noised abroad in *The Cemetery of the Magdalen*, and thus to attempt the throne of France. He was, however, seized by the police, and confined in the Bicêtre, but visited by many curious persons, who gave him money, and raised among the credulous a considerable subscription in his behalf. At length, he was brought to trial, the principal facts of his life were ascertained and defined by credible witnesses, some symptoms of insanity were detected, and he was sentenced to five years of imprisonment, and to find security for his good behaviour. The volume before us is a detailed account of his trial, which has naturally excited a very popular interest in France.

The English reader will be reminded by this transaction of the analogous plot of *Perkyn Warbeck*, who, in the reign of *Henry VII.*, pretended to be *Richard Duke of York*, and to have escaped the alleged smothering in the Tower. (See our last Appendix, p. 534.) The British imposture, if such it were, was better conducted and made a more national impression than this French adventure. The facility with which every species of instruction is now circulated renders deception more difficult, and credulity less permanent, than in the darker age which preceded the Reformation; so that talents of a higher order, and means of greater efficacy, will henceforward be requisite to produce any momentous effect by the false coinage of majesty. It may be useful, however, to attend to such historic lessons; for it might happen in this country that, on the well-known "Delicate Investigation," pretensions as presumptuous as those of *Mathurin Bruneau* might be founded.

I N D E X

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